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Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur

Elaine Meredith Baker

Date of Birth — Date de naissance August 3 1949	Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance Canada

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe

35 Baird Place
St. Johns, Newfoundland
A1B 2A7

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

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AN ANALYSIS OF READING COMPREHENSION IN CANADIAN READING SERIES: 1923-1979 FOR GRADES FOUR, FIVE, AND SIX

BY

© ELAINE MEREDITH BAKER

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled An Analysis of Reading Comprehension in Canadian Reading Series: 1923-1979 for Grades Four, Five, and Six submitted by Elaine M. Baker in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Marian E. D. Jenkinson
Supervisor

Frances M. MacCannell

R. S. Patterson

D. A. MacKeracher

Jean E. Robertson

H. Alan Robinson
External Examiner

Date . . October 8 1980

Abstract

The major purpose of this study was to trace the evolution of reading comprehension in elementary reading series adopted for use in Canadian schools between 1923 and 1979. Linked with this was an attempt to determine the impact of developments in educational thought, curriculum, reading theory, reading research, and other related fields on Canadian reading series.

This necessitated the writer's developing an informational base in educational thought, curriculum, and history of reading. Also, a content analysis of the reading series was required. Although these appear to be two separate tasks the major focus of the study was to interrelate the two.

Within the time period of the study ten reading series were analyzed . These were published at various dates during the period and were selected on the basis of frequency and longevity of adoption.

Several interrelationships within the series themselves were also examined, namely, the relation between a program's stated theory and actual methodology; between stated curriculum content and methodology; and between reader content and methodology. The major instrument used in coding the reading comprehension methodology was Barrett's Taxonomy of Cognitive and Affective Comprehension. Every question,exercise, directive, purpose, and activity that related to reading comprehension was coded according to the skill and level of comprehension it demanded. Based on the analysis a picture emerged of the evolution of reading theory, reading comprehension methodology, and reader content in Canadian elementary reading series published between 1923 and 1976. In addition, insights were gained into the consistencies and inconsistencies between theory, content, and method in teachers' manuals which accompany basal readers.

Perhaps the study's most important contribution, however, was its attempt to synthesize developments in curriculum, reading, and fields closely allied to reading such as psychology and linguistics.

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And the points, questions, comments raised by Dr. H. Alan Robinson, external examiner, not only served to add those necessary finishing touches but to give the writer additional knowledge about the field of reading and a greater awareness of the complexities involved in the relationships between theory, research, and practice.

To my husband and family - - thank-you for your encouragement and understanding.

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Chapter 1

NATURE OF THE STUDY

Introduction to the Study

Initially the writer was interested in investigating comprehension instruction in the classroom and the effects of selected instructional procedures on students' reading comprehension. In order to do this it seemed appropriate to first gain a historical perspective about reading comprehension theory and research. Such a perspective would enable more appropriate insights to be gained about reading comprehension. It also seemed appropriate to analyze those materials typically used for teaching reading comprehension - the basal reading series. Thus evolved the focus of the present study - the analysis over time of reading comprehension methodology contained in Canadian reading series. However, the study also investigated several other interrelated aspects--the relationship between theory, research, and practice; the relationship between developments in the particular fields of curriculum and reading and the content found in reading series; and the relationships between theory, method,and content found in the reading series.

Before stating the specific purposes of the study some background is given to illuminate the evolution of these purposes.

Background to the Purposes of the Study

Elementary education became a reality for Canadians after 1870. By that time most provinces, following Ontario's example, had established a central educational authority which as part of its many functions was responsible for financing local school boards and for the selection of curriculum materials which were prescribed for use within the classrooms of local school systems.

It had been at the instigation of Egerton Ryerson, Assistant Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada in 1846, that Ontario had provided through its Common School Acts of 1846 and 1850, free universal public elementary education for the province's school children. The resulting need for text material had been resolved by Ryerson's adoption of a graded series of textbooks, the Irish National Series, for use in the schools. This series, because of its graded nature, helped to establish the graded elementary school system in Canada for it was subsequently adopted in many of the other Canadian provinces (Boyce, 1949; Phillips, 1957). Ryerson had been influenced by educational ideas and practices in Europe and the United States.

The notion of European and American ideas having influenced Canadian education has been of perennial concern to Canadian educators whose opinions differ as to the nature and degree of this influence. This concern has led to much discussion and debate over what actually, if any, are the unique qualities of Canadian education (Gillett, 1969; Katz, 1956). Several Canadian educators believe that Canadian education has been influenced by educational ideas and events that have occurred elsewhere, especially those emanating from the United States. Prentice (1970), for example, has stated:

> Canadians have been influenced by many of the same ideas and practices in education known or observed in Europe. In addition, communications between the United States and Canada have always been considerable and the impact of the American experience on Canada has been profound. (p. 276)

Johnson (1968) emphasized that the American influence on education had been a dominant one partly because of the physical proximity of the United States, partly because many Canadians went to the United States for higher degrees in education, and also because Canadian educational circles have, to a great extent, used American textbooks. Johnson (1963) stated the following:

> We continued in Canada to be influenced by educational ideas from other countries but particularly from the United States.
>
> When American educational philosophy swung from the teacher-centered classroom of the Herbartians to the child-centered school of Dewey and the Progressives, Canadian educators could not remain unaffected by this, and there were many progressive repercussions on Canadian education. (p. 23)

As recently as 1974 Katz observed that "Canadian educators have borrowed heavily from American philosophies of education, curriculum methodologies and technologies" (Katz, 1974, p. 23).

Other educators have denied that there has been any great impact of American ideas on Canadian education. Campbell (1952), for example, expressed his opinion that "Canada has never followed the progressive movement in education" (p. 49). With this Scarfe (1962) agreed maintaining that, in general, progressive education had had little effect on Canadian educational practices. And yet, the existence of the progressive influence on education in Alberta has been verified by Patterson (1968) who conducted a historical study especially to answer this question.

Given the dichotomy and contradictory nature of these opinions it would seem that further evidence is needed which would help to show the presence or absence of outside influences on Canadian education particularly those influences originating in the United States.

One of the major arguments used by those who believe that American curricular events have greatly shaped Canadian education is that American textbooks have dominated Canadian classrooms and have, consequently, colored Canadian curriculum. The use of American texts in Canadian schools has also been a matter of great concern to Canadian educators becoming, at times, a very heated issue. It was because of Ryerson's anti-American sentiment as long ago as 1846 that the Irish textbooks had been chosen and it was not long before criticism of the lack of Canadian content in these books resulted in the publication and adoption of different series which purported to have more Canadian content.

As a reaction against the use of American texts British Columbia's Royal Commission on Education in 1960 recommended that more Canadian and British textbooks be procured for their schools. The Commission expressed its dissatisfaction with revisions of American textbooks which had supposedly been designed to gear books more toward Canadian school children. These revisions were, in the opinion of the Commission, rather sketchily done causing the textbooks to remain highly unsuitable. At the Canadian Education Association Convention in 1966, Oimet, then President of the Canadian Broadcasting Company, brought this matter home to his audience by revealing that in his survey of the aims of education produced by provincial departments of education none had dealt with Canada as a nation. He, too, pointed to the importance of having Canadian material in the curriculum.

Because of the assumption, supported by the results of classroom surveys carried out in the United States (Staiger, 1958; Austin and Morrison, 1963; Chall, 1967; Cowart, 1970; and Rosecky, 1977), that text materials can possibly influence classroom practice many educators consider textbooks and other instructional materials designed for classroom use to be the technology by which theory and research can be transmitted into actual classroom practice (Cronbach, 1955; Clement, 1942; Richek, 1979). For example, Popham (1969) believed that

> The education reformer who eloquently urges classroom teachers to change their practices may receive the accolades of the educational community, but the educational reformer who provides a set of useable curriculum materials for the teacher is more likely to modify what goes on in the classroom. (p. 319)

Popham (1969) went on to say that "the enormous impact of curricular materials as change agents should not be underestimated, and a consideration of research relevant to curriculum materials is clearly in order" (p. 319).

Having explored the history of research on teaching Clifford (1973) concluded:

> However much deliberate dissemination strategies promote future research impact the conclusion for the past is otherwise: that discrete, observable, chartable dissemination activities were far inferior in operation to the processes of cultural diffusion, that obscure, ambiguous, often involuntary transaction system whereby innovations and ideas are spread widely throughout some extended subsociety of the whole culture. (p. 25)

The diffusion of ideas referred to by Clifford could spread partly through the content of the textbooks used by teachers and children in classrooms. Textbooks can reveal particular influences, ideas and trends (Smith, 1965); or the values of society (Homze, 1966; Ozmon, 1968; Stone, 1966). Thus one way of examining the actual extent and nature of different influences on curriculum and curricular change is to examine textbooks over a period of time as they are primary sources that have endured through time. According to Good (1939):

> The textbooks of the past are doubtless the most valuable of all educational remains. . . . Such collections are of the utmost importance for the history of education. A history of the teaching of reading, for example, could be written only after an examination of the materials used in such instruction. (p. 10)

Nietz (1941) believed that textbook analysis could shed light on the objectives for the teaching of specific subjects through an analysis of the author's statements which were usually given in prefaces or the teacher's manuals accompanying textbooks to be used in the classroom, and by analysis of the content, which "may not necessarily agree fully with the objectives" (Nietz, 1941, p. 203). Nietz (1941) suggested that:

> Old textbooks themselves must have constituted an important source for suggestions on methods. Many authors

> of textbooks took great care in presenting definite plans for the successful teaching of their books. (p. 204)

The importance of using reading materials for carrying out historical research has been suggested by Chall (1979) who observed:

> Perhaps the current studies [of reading instruction] that use intensive classroom observations will provide eventually the historical data currently lacking. But until these observational data become available, one might consider using as other evidence such methods of gathering historical data as analysis of courses of study, teachers' guidebooks, and children's textbooks. (p. 39)

Within the elementary school curriculum one of the most commonly used pieces of instructional material has been and still is the basal reader. These textbooks like other kinds of curricular material have been prescribed or recommended for schools by Canadian Departments of Education since the 1860's and these, too, have been criticized for their lack of Canadian content. As recently as 1977 Lorimer, Hill, Long, and MacLellan, for instance, criticized primary reading series currently in use in British Columbia for their predominantly American content revealed by the bibliographical sources listed.

Reading authorities seem to be divided into two groups regarding the impact of theory and research on the content of these materials. Some reading educators have felt that the basal readers reflected current theories concerning curriculum and methodology (Yoakum, 1951) and reflected years of research (Criscuolo, 1973; Owens, 1954; Paukner, 1945; and Thompson,1957). In responding specifically to the assertion that reading research has had no impact on reading instruction, both Russell (1961) and Burns (1975) cited specific examples that had had a powerful effect on basal reading materials. They noted such works as that of Judd and Buswell, 1922; Thorndike, 1917; Strickland, 1962; the USOE First Grade Studies, 1966; and Stauffer, 1969.

Gray (1960) believed that reading materials had undergone very major changes and that these had been the result of other influences. Gray (1960) stated:

> Since 1920 reading materials have undergone radical modifications in harmony with social changes, new conceptions of the chief purposes of schooling, increased understanding of child development, interests and needs, and research findings in related areas. (p. 1119)

Elsewhere Betts (1973) has explained that the authors of reading programs apply theoretical constructs regarding motivation, perception, and thinking in the reading process, and that these constructs were based on linguistics and psychology.

Others have argued that there has been no relationship between reading theory and research and the content of materials used in reading instruction (Carline, 1960; Harris, 1972; Kyle, 1978; and Robinson, 1968). For example, Barton and Wilder (1964) concluded on the basis of a brief examination of basal reading material that "they have remained substantially unchanged since the 1930's . . . research on reading has had no new effects on the basal readers during the last thirty years" (p. 375). This is quite an indictment of basal readers, given the brief examination of the authors. However, Barton and Wilder's study did carry some weight, for Clifford (1973) relied heavily on Barton and Wilder's findings in forming her conclusion that there had been little impact of reading research on the teaching of reading, that, in effect, those who had thought that reading materials were based on research had probably been believing nothing but a myth.

Several points have been raised by the foregoing discussion--that differing opinions exist regarding the nature and extent of foreign educational influences on Canadian education; that differing opinions exist regarding the extent of curricular change in textbooks although it is generally recognized that curricular materials designed for classroom instruction may be conduits of change and may reveal influences; and, that in the field of reading a dichotomy of opinion exists about the effect of reading theory and research on materials designed for reading instruction.

These points bear a direct relation to the nature of the study, for in addition to investigating the evolution of methodology with regard to reading comprehension in instructional materials, the study also investigated the nature and extent of American influences on Canadian texts particularly in terms of the effect of American educational thought and curriculum developments on Canadian curricular materials and also investigated the relation between the content of Canadian reading series and reading theory and research.

The selection of the primary focus of the study--the tracing of reading comprehension methodology--seemed particularly appropriate given the continuing mushrooming of reading theory and research. And even though a survey of the literature had revealed very few historical studies of reading theory or reading comprehension methodology it would be misleading to conclude that there has been no historical research in the field of reading. For example, Smith (1965) wrote a comprehensive history of American reading instruction while Pangalangan (1960) described the history of remedial reading instruction in the United States and Keller (1962) traced the history of remedial reading instruction in New York. The history of methods for teaching beginning reading has been described in books (Huey, 1908; Mathews, 1966) and within chapters of books (Fries, 1962; Lapp and Flood, 1978; Ruddell, 1974). A welcome synthesis of theory and research about learning to read has recently been provided by Calfee and Drum (1978) and changes in the content and methodology for beginning reading instruction in primary basal readers has been studied (Chall,1967). However, there has not been, to the writer's knowledge, a study which synthesized reading theory and research related to reading comprehension over an extensive period of time, nor have there been studies specifically designed to examine the relation between reading theory and reading research and the content of instructional materials used in the teaching of reading comprehension.

In American Reading Instruction, which still remains the "only complete and insightful treatise on the history of reading instruction in the United States" (Clymer, 1965, p.5), Smith (1965) traced the history of American reading instruction from colonial times to 1965 dividing her study into nine time periods. In her study Smith described the content, format, objectives for reading, and components of basal reading series used during each period. As a result occasional insights into reading comprehension instruction are gained but as this was not the purpose of her study no systematic or continuous treatment of reading comprehension instruction is provided.

Although few studies have been directly related to the history of reading comprehension theory and instruction there have been studies that have surveyed the research and literature pertaining to reading comprehension. Often these studies were carried out to critically review the research (Breton, 1968); to clarify existing concepts about reading comprehension (Stern, 1971); or simply to identify factors commonly accepted as affecting reading comprehension (Harker, 1971). These, however, were not set within a historical perspective with the intent of illustrating the interrelationships with educational developments or developments in the field of reading.

There have been analyses of reading comprehension within basal reading series but these have focussed solely on examining the questions presented for teaching reading comprehension in series selected from one time period (Cooke, 1970; Higginbotham, 1970; Santos, 1968).

Surveys of classroom practices in teaching reading comprehension have focussed on the questions asked by teachers (Guszak, 1966) but did not examine in depth the relation of these questions to the content of the instructional material being used by the teachers (the basal reader in most cases). Recently, Durkin (1978/79) carried out a study of American classroom practices in relation to reading comprehension instruction that has been cited as a report which "if heeded by the profession, is destined to have a tremendous impact on comprehension instruction" (Weintraub, 1978/1979, p. v).

Durkin found that very little instruction in reading comprehension was being carried out by classroom teachers. Although classroom teachers did employ the basal reader as the major unit of instruction only the questions in the manuals and in the workbook exercises were being used by the teachers, thus suggesting that the influence of the methodology in basal reading series on classroom practice was not as great as has been thought. Before any generalizations can be made, however, and as Durkin herself cautioned more research needs to be done which may have implications for the publishing of basal readers and preservice and inservice education. Meanwhile the basal reader still remains a most popular and potentially powerful instrument for teaching reading comprehension in the elementary grades even if only because of its questions and workbook exercises.

These studies have all been conducted by American reading researchers and have dealt with American classroom practices and materials. Within Canada there has not been, to the writer's knowledge, a study which has ever focussed on either classroom practice in the teaching of reading comprehension or on an analysis of the instructional materials used to teach reading comprehension in the elementary grades. Neither has there been a study which attempted to determine the nature and extent of educational or curricular influences within these materials, or the relation between reading theory and research and the content of the material used in reading instruction, especially with respect to reading comprehension.

Purposes of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to trace the evolution of reading comprehension methodology in elementary reading series adopted for use in Canadian schools between 1923 and 1979. In studying the methodology contained in the series for teaching reading comprehension the theory of reading underlying each series was also studied followed by an analysis of the relation between the two; the theory of reading and reading comprehension methodology. From this additional insights were gained into the evolution of reading theory as portrayed in reading series, and the consistency between a program's reading theory and methodology. Because methodology is linked closely with content this relationship was also examined which involved studying the content of the readers and then the relationship between that content and the reading comprehension methodology. This, in turn, produced information about the nature of the changing reader content in Canadian reading series.

A second purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between developments in reading theory and research and the content in the reading series particularly with regard to reading comprehension. Thirdly, the study was designed in order to determine the relationship between characteristics found in the reading series and developments occurring in the same period within educational thought and curriculum, reading and other related fields which had an impact on reading. Most of these developments were part of American educational history although some were part of British educational history, and so, through the analysis necessary in carrying out the third purpose information was gained which helped to establish support for the presence or absence of foreign educational influences on Canadian education.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the analysis of the Canadian reading series which constituted the data for the study:

1. How has the theory of reading, especially with respect to reading comprehension, changed as evidenced by explicit statements in the basal reading series?
2. How has the methodology for teaching reading comprehension changed in the basal reading series?
    2.11. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the purposes given for reading instruction in the teacher's manual?
    2.12. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the kinds of directives stated in the teacher's manual?

2.13. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the questions stated in the teacher's manual?

2.14. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the reading comprehension skill exercises found in the teacher's manual?

2.15. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the reading comprehension activities found in the teacher's manual?

2.16. What has been the nature and direction of change in terms of the reading comprehension skill exercises in the accompanying workbook(s)?

3. What is the relationship between the theory of reading comprehension and the methodology for teaching reading comprehension in the basal reading series?

4. What is the relationship between the curriculum content of the basal reading series pertaining to reading comprehension and the methodology given for teaching reading comprehension?

5. What is the relationship between the content in the readers and the methodology related to reading comprehension?

6. What influences appear to have affected the theory and methodology included in the basal reading series in relation to reading comprehension?

   6.1. What influences from the field of curriculum appear to have affected the theory and methodology related to reading comprehension?

6.2. What influences from related fields appear to have affected the theory and methodology related to reading comprehension?

6.3. What influences from the field of reading appear to have affected the theory and methodology related to reading comprehension?

6.31. What influences from theories of reading appear to have affected the theory and methodology related to reading comprehension?

6.32. What influences from reading comprehension research appear to have affected the theory and methodology related to reading comprehension?

These questions were all directed toward the content of basal reading series designed for use in grades four, five, and six. The material to be analyzed was selected from these grades because it is within these levels that reading comprehension instruction is particularly emphasized. Although word recognition skills are still taught in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades it is generally presumed that by the time children reach these grades they have mastered decoding skills and are thus freed to read a variety of materials and to concentrate on reading for meaning.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was not concerned about actual classroom teaching practices for without knowledge gained from additional research into courses of study, records of school officers and teachers, interviews and perusal of many educational periodicals and documents as well as classroom visitations this would have been a precarious presumption. It was, instead, concerned only with influences found in materials which have been shown to have had an impact on teaching practice.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used throughout this study:

Reading comprehension methodology

This phrase is often used in conjunction with the phrase reading comprehension instruction. It refers to the strategies presented within the basal reading series which are designed for the teacher to use in teaching pupils to read with comprehension. In this study these strategies include the purposes, directives, questions, activities, and skill exercises contained in the reading series which could be used in reading comprehension instruction.

Reading comprehension

> Understanding the ideas, concepts, propositions, facts, questions, injunctions, arguments, inferences, qualifications, attitudes, emotions and anything else that may be expressed in language materials that are written . . . so reading comprehension entails cognitive processes of knowing, reasoning, and inferencing that are supposed to be evoked by the printed texts. . . . It also includes affect . . . involves the apprehension of affective elements. (Carroll, 1977, p. 2)

Theory

"A plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle or body of principles offered to explain phenomena" (Websters Dictionary, 1977, p. 1209).

Basal reading series

A basal reading series is a systematic reading program which uses a series of graded reading textbooks and related materials to help children accomplish a sequence of reading skills (Mangrum and Forgan, 1977). Most basal reading programs are designed for use in kindergarten to sixth grade and usually contain six components. The major component is the readers which are graded in reading difficulty. In the intermediate grades (four, five, six) there is usually one reader per grade although recently a number of series have more than one.

Accompanying the readers is the teacher's manual or guidebook which includes activities and exercises for teaching and reinforcing reading skills, and directions for using the reading selections when conducting directed reading activities. Each reader selection is related to a directed reading approach or activity (a lesson plan) which usually involves a number of steps: (1) motivation and development of background, (2) directed reading of the story, (3) skill-building exercises, and (4) follow-up and enrichment activities.

The third major component of the basal reading program is the learning book, or workbook, skillbook, or practice book which accompanies each reader and manual. The purpose of the pages in this book is often indicated within the directed reading activity included in the teacher's manual and is coordinated with the purpose of that lesson. This book contains exercises used reinforcing reading skills that have been taught.

The management system indicates the curriculum content of the program. Usually this is presented in a chart which outlines a scope and sequence of skills included in the program (Mangrum and Forgan, 1977).

Accompanying the basal reading series are many supplementary materials including records, storybooks, flashcards, tapes, and diagnostic reading tests.

Significance of the Study

A number of factors appear to contribute to the study's significance:

The study through its analysis of reading comprehension theory and methodology in Canadian basal series over time has provided a historical perspective that will contribute further knowledge to the reading field. This analysis was related to developments in reading theory and reading comprehension research found in the professional literature which has served to depict the interaction between theory, research and practice so often advocated as being needed and in relation to which there appear to be two schools of thought; one which believes that there is no relationship, that curricular practices are not based on theory or research, or that there is usually a great lag between research and theory and practice; and the other which believes that curricular materials do reflect educational theory, curriculum reform, and research. To date, there have been few investigations which have sought to verify these views.

Because of the background provided by the study implications for the designing of reading series emerged possibly made stronger because of the study's historical perspective. As a result of the analysis demanded by the study glimpses into the nature and extent of outside influences on Canadian education were obtained.

Overview of the Study

In Chapter II studies which have specific relevance to this study are described. In Chapter III, the design of the study is given in which is explained the selection of reading series and the time periods, the method of analysis, and the background against which the findings will be interrelated. Before presenting the data from the analysis of the reading series a brief look into the past takes place where those reading series used in Canadian schools before 1923 are discussed and where developments in educational thought, curriculum theory, reading theory and research are outlined up to 1923. This forms the content of Chapter IV. In Chapter V the data found in the Canadian reading series analyzed between 1923 and 1949 is presented along with the interrelation of the findings to developments in other fields. This is also the pattern for Chapter VI, which deals with the analysis of selected Canadian reading series between 1950 and 1974; and Chapter VII, which is concerned with the content of reading series adopted in Canadian schools from 1974 to the present time.

The integration of the findings from the analysis of the elementary reading series is portrayed in Chapter VIII. Here trends through time are traced, particular findings are highlighted, and conclusions and implications evolving from the findings are suggested.

Chapter 2

RELATED STUDIES

Introduction

Studies which involved examining the content of basal series were judged to have particular relevance to this study and are, therefore, briefly described here. Before proceeding, however, some points of clarification are in order.

The designation of particular reading skills as being comprehension or study skills has long been a problematic area in the field of reading. For example, Russell (1960) defined study skills as including skill in locating information, ability to select and evaluate information, ability to adjust the method and rate of reading to purpose and the nature of the material, facility in using information, and ability to retain what is read. At least two of these, ability to evaluate information and skill in retaining what is read have also been very closely tied to reading comprehension and have been called critical reading skills representing higher levels of comprehension in certain of the reading taxonomies (Smith, 1961; Barrett, 1968). Thus studies of the content of reading series while purporting to focus on comprehension may have also been analyzing study skills. To add to this confusion there have been various listings of comprehension skills which have differed from author to author (Russell, 1960; Huus, 1962; Smith, 1963; Barrett, 1968; Smith, 1969) and different meanings have been associated with the term "comprehension" (Stern, 1971).

Several reading authorities have maintained that this confusion surrounding reading comprehension is also present in the instructional materials used to teach reading (Bormuth, 1968; Durrell, 1941; Spache, 1963; Spache, 1973). Johnson (1966) wondered where we really stand with regard to reading comprehension and suggested:

> One way to check on the evidence would be to examine the teachers' manuals which accompany the basal reading series. Another would be to examine the actual materials which might reach the children's hands, the readers themselves and the workbooks. (p. 56)

Johnson had found that a wide variety of specific comprehension abilities were listed in teachers' manuals and that the reading material contained in the reading programs related to the provision of comprehension abilities. According to Johnson (1966)

> Only the diversity of the types of materials included limits the demands in the area of comprehension which are placed on the reader if he is to achieve full understanding. Obviously, if no figurative language is used there is no demand for the ability to interpret it. If no material includes conflict there is no need for evaluation. (p. 57)

That the teaching of reading comprehension is and should be related to the type of content contained in the readers has long been a belief held by reading professionals. Higginbotham (1970) concluded from his survey of the literature that reading professionals agreed reading comprehension skills could be best taught through the use of a variety of literary types. As Burrows stated, "comprehension abilities must be nurtured through analyzing responses to a range of reading content" (Burrows, 1954, p. 276).

With these points in mind the writer attempted to select the most appropriate studies where the content and methodology in reading series had been examined.

Studies of Reading Comprehension in Basal Reading Series

As noted previously, insights into the development of reading comprehension in basal reader series are gained from such general works as that of Nila Banton Smith (1965). Smith (1965) found that it was not until 1910 to 1925 that procedures in the manuals of American basal readers required the child to do exercises which demanded that he react to what he was reading thus furnishing a check on his comprehension. Between 1925 and 1935 comprehension skills were grouped in teachers' manuals and charts presenting these skills were often included. In the reading series published between 1935 and 1950 comprehension was broken down into a number of different elements. This breaking down of comprehension skills continued in those series published up to 1965 with an increasing emphasis being given to higher level thinking skills.

Reading is believed to be a thinking process and as such the reader, in order to comprehend, must be able to perform a number of cognitive tasks. As an instructional aid for developing the cognitive abilities necessary for reading comprehension questioning has been considered a major strategy to be asked before, during, and after the reading of material. Several analyses have been made of the kinds of questions found in basal reader manuals.

From comparing the objectives and questions in teachers' guidebooks Bartholome (1968) found that the category of objectives and questions most often coded were at the literal level and involved memory. In particular, questions in the evaluative category were neglected. Marksberry, McCarter, and Noyce (1969) first examined the educational literature to determine the objectives for the teaching of different subjects and then analyzed textbook series to determine the level of cognition demanded by the questions and activities suggested in the teacher's editions. These were then classified using Bloom's taxonomy. The analysis of reading series revealed no questions in the synthesis category and very few in the evaluation category.

Cooke (1970) analyzed reading comprehension questions in manuals using Barrett's taxonomy. A total of 3536 questions were selected for coding. The results of the analysis showed that 48% of the questions were details, 3.5% were inferring of cause-effect relationships, and 1.25% were the recognition and recall of cause-effect relationships. No questions could be recorded as judgments of appropriateness. In order of the highest to lowest frequency of level of reading comprehension, Cooke found that the Literal level was first representing 55% of the data recorded; second was Inferential accounting for 26%, third came Appreciation at 10% followed by Reorganization at 6% and Evaluation at 3%. From applying the Chi Square Test a significant difference was found between series.

Another analysis of the questions in basal reading series carried out by Mueller (1972) revealed that the overwhelming majority (95.6%) were convergent in nature and demanded memory. These results were similar to those of Hatcher (1971) who analyzed the types of questions and activities in the manuals of basal reader series according to the levels of cognition they demanded. Hatcher used Barrett's Taxonomy in his coding of the questions and activities. The results of Hatcher's analysis indicated that a greater percentage of the questions and activities were at the literal level of comprehension.

From reviewing the literature Vaughn (1976) found that the majority of analyses of reading series had shown questions to be predominantly at the literal level of comprehension. Vaughn (1976) examined teachers' manuals in order to compare the cognitive objectives given by the authors and the methodology given for teaching comprehension - primarily questions. As a result of coding the data using Guszak's taxonomy Vaughn concluded that all of the editions had stated cognitive objectives and that the questions tended to fulfill these objectives. Also, these questions demanded a progressively higher level of cognitive maturation from grades four to six. In fact, Vaughn found that there was a higher percentage of questions at the inferential level than had been indicated previously in the literature. Nevertheless, Vaughn recommended that an even greater increase in inferential questions was warranted.

Nicholson (1977) also sought to determine the levels of comprehension required by the discussion questions included in teachers' manuals for the fourth grade level. A total of 360 questions were categorized according to Barrett's Taxonomy. Frequencies were compiled and percentages for each level of comprehension and each comprehension skill were calculated. The results showed that the majority of the questions demanded a literal level of thinking. A chi-square analysis indicated a significant difference existed between one series and all of the others.

Rosecky (1977) studied the questions and activities in the teachers' guidebooks which showed that the emphasis was placed on the comprehension skill of details at the literal level. Most of the coding came from the Directed Reading section. Rosecky recommended that publishers upgrade basal series in line with the findings from research in learning strategies and that a clear distinction be made between comprehension skills developed with fiction and those developed through the use of non-fiction material.

With the exception of Vaughn's study most of the research reported above illustrated that the questions analyzed in reading series were generally found to be at the literal level of comprehension.

Studies of the Content of American Readers

Smith's (1965) study had revealed that between 1776 and 1840 the content of American readers was moralistic and nationalistic in tone and included historical, literary, informational, and expository selections. Between 1840 and 1880 the American readers contained mostly informative material with the number of moral selections decreasing continuously until by the period's end there were very few. Literature was the content of the reading series between 1880 and 1910 but by 1910 factual and informational material was beginning to be included which continued until 1925. During 1925 to 1935 the informative material in the readers was portrayed in the form of realistic narrative. Between 1935 and 1950 more literary selections were included and these along with informational selections formed the content of basal readers between 1950 and 1965. Woody (1920) had analyzed the current American readers at the time and found a preponderance of myths, fables, fairytales, folklore, and legends, similar to both Smith's and Starch's (1924) findings.

Not long after this Robinson (1930) had analyzed the content of 1370 readers published from 1775 to 1926 using such categories as animals and birds, adventure, boys and girls, nature study, thrift, oratory, geography, religion, myth, folklore, fairystories, fables, and biography. He classified the content into two major categories: prose and poetry. From his tabulation of the frequency of content types it is evident that stories of animals and nature increased throughout the years which Robinson attributed to Pestalozzi's influence, that religion characterized more of the prose content before 1775 decreasing to almost zero in 1926, and that boys and girls stories increased.

DeCharms and Moeller (1962) traced the values expressed in readers from 1810 to 1950. From each of twenty year periods, selected from Nila Banton Smith's work, four readers were chosen for analysis. Their findings confirmed a decrease in moral-religious content.

Another study of the value orientation in basal readers was undertaken by Ozmon (1968) who examined the content in relation to five educational philosophies: Progressivism, Existentialism, Perennialism, Reconstructionism, and Essentialism. Based on his analysis Ozmon (1968) found that over two-thirds of the content was progressive-existential in nature leading him to conclude:

> It would seem that children's textbooks have been undergoing a steady change toward becoming consistent with progressive aims and methods and that this trend is still going on. (p. 248)

In reviewing the related literature Pascasio (1964) referred to studies of basal readers that had been carried out in the 1930's by Coursin, Mason, and Broad who had all found that the reader content was not very varied and that the dearth of informational material contributed to there being little emphasis on study aids. Pascasio analyzed the content of ten reading series published between 1955 and 1964 which had been widely used by school systems. Two of these series had also been popular in Canada --the Ginn Basic Readers and the Curriculum Foundation Readers. Having coded the content Pascasio computed the frequency and percentage of each category and presented the results in tabular form. Pascasio's analysis showed that there was a loss of traditional literature (myths, fables, legends) from the modern basic readers which contained more realistic fiction and a greater variety of types of reading material.

Other major sources that have provided more details about the content of American readers are Carpenter's History of American Textbooks (1963), Elson's Guardians of Tradition: American Schoolbooks of the Nineteenth Century (1964), and Nietz's Old Textbooks (1961).

Studies of the Content of Canadian Readers

Several analyses of the content of Canadian readers have been carried out through the years. In 1930 Brock sent a questionnaire to Alberta's teachers to obtain their opinion of the content of current readers (The Canadian Readers). The majority of teachers favoured changes in the readers which would result in a combination of factual and literary content, more biographical sketches, more stories of Canadian exploits, more humorous stories, more stories suitable for silent reading, and more content that was child-centered.

Perhaps the most comprehensive study of Canadian reading series was that carried out by Boyce in 1949. On the basis of her study Boyce concluded that the content of Canadian readers between 1846 and 1935 was characterized by a strongly growing trend toward nationalism and a sense of thrift which she related to developments in Canada's history.

From his survey of the Nelson Language Development Reading Series, Ginn's Starting Points in Reading, and Gage's Strategies for Language Arts, Holmes (1978) felt that the Nelson program contained the most original and the most Canadian content, with the selections in Starting Points of a much lesser literary quality. Within Starting Points, too, Holmes (1978) found "traces of condescension" (p. 25).

Historical information regarding Canadian readers adopted in Ontario is found in White's Public School Textbooks (1922) where, in particular, the content of the Irish Readers is described. In the third book of the Irish series a Pestalozzian influence can be seen. For the most part the selections were of a moralistic nature with some emphasis on literary content. White's work also provided insights into particular events in time which contributed to the increasing demand that these textbooks be more Canadian in content and child-centered.

Building on White's work Parvin (1965) traced the reader adoptions in Ontario as far as 1950. Parvin believed that changes in educational thought had been reflected in the readers and that because of the orientation toward an activity-centered approach to education which reached a peak between 1936 and 1950 a new set of readers had been recommended and adopted in 1944, these being the Canadian Treasury Readers.

Having combined information from the above sources with his own review of readers adopted in Ontario over a 125 year period, Repo (1974) concluded:

> Canadian public-school readers differ from public-school readers in most other countries in that they don't attempt to give children a sense of patria either geographically or ideologically. . . Instead the readers used in Canadian schools impart their

> content and their sensibilities from sources outside Canada. (p. 119)

The one possible exception to this generalization in Repo's opinion was the Nelson Language Development Reading Program published in the '70's which, although managing to compete with American counterparts, did have Canadian content. In addition, Repo observed the program's sensitivity to another current educational fad--the "theme" approach to presenting material, a reflection of a concern with child-centered education, the major tenet of the progressive philosophy. While Repo (1974) acknowledged that the attempt to create a Canadian textbook series could not have been easy given that "it is difficult to create a strong sense of national identity in a country that has rather passively throughout its history accepted a satellite relationship with one or another powerful nation" (p. 132), he felt that Dennis Lee's poem was about as successful as anything else in these books for creating a feel for Canada:

> If I lived in Temagami,
> Temiskaming, Kenagami,
> Or Lynx or Michipicoten Sound,
> I wouldn't stir the whole year round,
> Unless I went to spend the day
> At Bawk, or Nottawasaga Bay,
> Or Missinabi, Moosonee,
> Or Kahshe or Chicoutimi.
> (p. 132)

Chapter 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Conceptual Framework

An understanding of the areas forming the conceptual framework to the study enabled the writer to discover certain characteristics in the Canadian reading series selected for study that could be related to developments in the areas forming the conceptual framework. Those areas forming the conceptual background of the study were educational thought, curriculum, and reading, and the specific fields of psychology and linguistics which have had an impact on reading. Within the field of reading particular knowledge was needed of the history of reading theory and reading comprehension research.

It seemed appropriate to choose these areas because of their own interrelation with each other and because they may have had an impact on the instructional materials used to teach reading. Because reading theory and research have been centered for years in the United States it is the history of American reading theory and research which formed the central core of the conceptual framework for the study. And, because it has been generally believed that American educational developments have had an impact on Canadian education it is the history of American educational thought and curriculum which formed a major part of the conceptual framework.

In addition, as this study was concerned with Canadian reading series adopted for use in Canadian schools it was felt that a knowledge of Canadian educational history would provide a pertinent backdrop for the study. Therefore, during the course of the next few chapters we will, at times, meander in and out of Canadian educational history.

Selection of Sample and Time Period

Because of their frequency of use and possible influence on reading comprehension instruction the basal reading series at grades four, five, and six levels was selected as the major unit of analysis.

Thought-getting was beginning to be considered an important aspect of the reading process during the early part of the twentieth century advocated by such leading educators as Colonel Francis Parker, Huey, and Dewey who criticized the mechanical treatment of reading in the schools. This was also the period of scientific development in psychology which had produced a number of tests for measurement purposes. These tests included oral and silent reading tests which when given to elementary school children had revealed that a number of children were not understanding what they read (Smith, 1965) and which, in turn, contributed to the growing demand for reading to be taught silently.

During the period between 1916 and 1921 the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education reported silent reading research and in 1925 the twenty-fourth yearbook included lessons for teaching silent reading. Teachers' manuals came into wide use during this time and these contained instructions for teaching silent reading. The development of comprehension was one of the major concerns of the new silent reading methods described in these manuals.

Because the teaching of silent reading with a focus on reading comprehension became emphasized during 1915 to 1925 and because teachers' manuals began to be widely published at this time (in the United States) it was decided to begin the analysis of Canadian reading series with those published around 1925. The study began its analysis, therefore, with the Canadian Readers published in 1923. The entire period of the study was from 1923 to 1978/1979 which provided an adequate time-span for tracing the evolution of reading theory, content, and methodology related to reading comprehension in Canadian elementary reading series.

Selection of Reading Series

The number of years of provincial adoption for each reading series published between 1923 and 1978/1979 was totalled as was the number of provinces in which it had been prescribed or recommended. The three reading series which had been adopted the most frequently and had the most longevity were then chosen for analysis.

Reading series selected from 1923-1949. Boyce (1949) had compiled a list of the elementary reading series adopted by each Canadian province for the years 1848-1949. This information was of immense value to the writer as it provided a basis from which to select reading series for the subperiod 1923-1949, the first time division in the study. Boyce's study also provided data about particular series against which findings from this writer's research could be compared. Before proceeding with the selection, however, the writer examined annual reports, book price-lists, curricular guides, in order to trace the adoption of reading series in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Ontario from 1900 to 1949. The results of this search validated Boyce's findings confirming the adequacy of her listing which is presented in Table 3.1

Based on Boyce's list the frequency and longevity for each series was totalled (totals are found in Appendix 1) and the following series were selected for study from period I, 1923-1949:

Canadian Readers (1922, 1923)
    (W.J. Gage and T. Nelson Publishers)

Treasury Readers (1932, 1934)
    (Ryerson and Macmillan Publishers)

Highroads to Reading (1934, 1935)
    (W.J. Gage and T. Nelson Publishers)

Reading series selected from 1950-1974. From provincial programs of study, textbook circulars, curriculum guides, book price-lists, annual reports, and personal correspondence and conversation the writer compiled a list of major elementary reading series prescribed or recommended in nine Canadian provinces from 1950 to 1978. This information is shown in Table 3.2.

The information in Table 3.2 indicates that about 1974 there were several changes in provincial textbook adoptions. Therefore, it was decided that 1950-1974 would stand as period two with 1974-1978/1979 becoming period three. The frequency of adop-

Table 3.1

Boyce's List of Elementary Reading Series Used in Canadian Provinces: 1846-1949

British Columbia		**Alberta and N.W. Territories**	
1880-1900	Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)[a]	1880-1903	Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)
1900-1915	Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage)	1903-1908	Ontario Readers (Canada Pub.)
1915-1923	British Columbia Readers (W.J. Gage)	1908-1923	Alexandra Readers (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)
1923-1935	Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)	1935-1949	Highroads to Reading (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)
1935-1949	Highroads to Reading (W.J. Gage and T. Nelson)	1946[b]	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)
Saskatchewan & N.W. Territories		**Manitoba**	
1900	Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)	1880-1897	Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)
1900-1913	Ontario Readers (Canada Pub.)	1898-1910	Victorian Readers (Copp Clark & W.J. Gage)
1913-1922	Alexandra Readers (Macmillan)	1910-1922	Manitoba Readers
1922-1934	Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage & T.Nelson)	1922-1934	Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)
		1934-1949	Highroads to Reading (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)
		1946	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)
Ontario		**New Brunswick**	
1846-1867	Irish National (Dublin Comm.)	1877	Irish National (Dublin Comm.)
1868-1884	Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)	1877-1905	Royal Readers (T. Nelson)
1883-1884	Royal Readers (T. Nelson)	1900-1920	New Brunswick Readers (W.J. Gage)
1884-1909	Ontario Readers (Canada Pub.)	1920-1939	Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage & T. Nelson)
1909-1936	Ontario Readers (T. Eaton)	1939-1949	Treasury Readers (Ryerson & Macmillan)
1937-1946	Treasury Readers (Ryerson & Macmillan)		
Nova Scotia		**Prince Edward Island**	
1867-1877	Irish National (Dublin Comm.)	1877	Irish National (Dublin Comm.)
1877-1906	Royal Readers (T. Nelson)	1877-1894	Royal Readers (T. Nelson)
1906-1921	Nova Scotia Readers (T. Nelson)		Canadian Readers (J. Campbell)
1921-1933	Atlantic Readers (T. Nelson)	1894-1910	New Canadian Readers (W.J. Gage)
1933-1947	Treasury Readers (Ryerson & Macmillan)	1910-1940	Ontario Readers (T. Eaton)
		1940-1949	Treasury Readers (Ryerson & Macmillan)

[a] J. Campbell and Sons became W.J. Gage and Company.

[b] An addition made on the basis of the writer's research.

Table 3.2

Major Elementary Reading Series Used in Nine Canadian Provinces: 1950-1978

British Columbia		Saskatchewan		Alberta	
1950-1968	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)	1950-1978	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)	1950-1966	Canadian Parade (J.J.Dent)
1968-1978	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)	1957-1967	Faith and Freedom (Ginn)	1950-1969	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)
	Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)	1967-1972	Light and Life (Ginn)	1958-1974	Curriculum Foundations (W.J. Gage)
	Canadian Basic Readers (Holt, Rinehart & Winston)	1973-1978	Collier-Macmillan	1965-1978	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)
	New Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundations (W.J. Gage)		Ryerson	1968-1978	Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)
1979	Ginn 720		The New Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundations (W.J. Gage)	1976-1978	Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)
	Nelson Language Development (T. Nelson)		Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)		
	Strategies for Language Arts (Gage)		Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)		
		1974-1978	Voyager (Copp Clark)		
			Starting Points (Ginn)		
			Strategies for Language Arts (Gage)		

Manitoba		Ontario		New Brunswick	
1950-1968	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)	1950-1964	Canadian Parade (J.J. Dent)	1964-1971	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)
1968-1978/79	New Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundations (W.J. Gage)	1950-1974	New World Readers (Ryerson)	1971-1978/79	Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)
	Canadian Basic (Holt, Rinehart & Winston)	1950-1967	Highroads to Reading (T. Nelson)		
1973-1978/79	Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)	1950-1975	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)		
	Strategies for Language Arts (Gage)	1961-1976	Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)		
1978/1979	Starting Points in Reading (Ginn)	1962-1974	Canadian Heritage (J.J. Dent)		
	Voyager (Copp Clark)	1962-1978	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)		
		1963-1974	Canadian Basic (Holt, Rinehart & Winston)		
		1975-1978	Strategies for Language Arts (Gage)		
			Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)		

Table 3.2 (continued)

Nova Scotia	
1954-1967	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)
1962-1968	New World Readers (Ryerson)
1967-1978	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)
1967-1978	Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)
	Canadian Basic (Holt, Rinehart & Winston)
	New Basic Readers: (W.J. Gage)
	Canadian Heritage (J.J. Dent)
1976-1978	Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)

Prince Edward Island	
1950-1952	New Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundations (W.J. Gage)
	Canadian Reading Development (Copp Clark)
1973-1978	Canadian Ginn Basic (Ginn)
	Young Canada Readers (T. Nelson)

Newfoundland	
1950-1965	Highroads to Reading (T. Nelson)
1950-1963	Faith and Freedom (Ginn)
1963-1972	New Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundations (W. J. Gage)
1965-1971	Light and Life (Ginn)
1971-1978	Nelson Language Development Reading Program (T. Nelson)
	Voyager (Copp Clark)
1975-1978	Starting Points in Reading (Ginn)

Note: Only major elementary reading series were listed. To be classified as major a series had to be adopted for more than four years. Quebec , the Northwest Territories, and Yukon were omitted due to their very unique qualities.

tion and total number of years of adoption for each series was obtained and is presented in Appendix 1. As a result, four reading series were included for study, three which had the most frequency and longevity and an additional series, Highroads to Reading, as it had continued in use from the preceding period having been revised 1946-1950. The four series analyzed from this second period 1950-1974 were:

Canadian Reading Development (1946-1950)
(Copp Clark Publishers)

Highroads to Reading (1946-1950)
(T. Nelson Publishers)

Canada Ginn Basic (1961-1963)
(Ginn and Company Publishers)

Young Canada Readers (1961-1966)
(T. Nelson and Company Publishers)

Reading series selected from 1974-1978/79. Current programs of study for 1978/1979 from nine provinces verified the continuation of those reading series which had been shown to be adopted around 1974. Because the future will determine the longevity of these series three series were chosen based on the current frequency of their adoption. Table 3.3 presents those reading series currently prescribed or recommended for use in the elementary schools of nine Canadian provinces.

From Table 3.3 it becomes clear that series such as the Young Canada Readers, Canadian Ginn Basic, and Curriculum Foundations enjoyed very long periods of adoption in certain provinces.

Table 3.3

Elementary Reading Series Currently Adopted in Nine Canadian Provinces 1978-1979

Series	Provinces								
	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.
Nelson Language Development Reading Program	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X[a]
Gage Strategies			X		X	X	X	X	X
Starting Points	X		X		X	X	X	X	
Canadian Ginn Basic		X	X		X			X	
Young Canada Readers		X					X	X	
Voyager	X		X		X	X	X		
Canadian Basic						X			X
New Basic: Curriculum Foundations						X			X
Ginn 720									X[a]

[a] This is based on British Columbia's 1979/1980 Programme of Studies.

It is also interesting to note that two of the publishing companies are still actively involved as they had been from the beginning, namely T. Nelson and Sons and Gage Educational Publishers.

Based on the current frequency of adoption of basal readers in Canada as indicated in Table 3.3 the following reading series from the third subperiod of the study 1974-1978/1979 were selected:

Starting Points in Reading (1971-1975)
(Ginn Publishers)

Nelson Language Development Reading Program (1971-1976)
(T. Nelson Publishers)

Nelson Language Development Reading Program, Manuals (1977)
(T. Nelson Publishers)

Gage Strategies for Language (1971-1976)
(Gage Publishers)

Method of Analysis

The general method of analysis used in this study was that of content analysis. Content analysis is a "research technique for making inferences systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics within text" (Stone, 1968, p. 5). Its purpose is "to indicate the presence or absence of variables in the 'real world,' something about the relative magnitude of the variables, and something about the relations among different variables" (Cartwright, 1953, p. 448). Once the variables to be studied have been defined, categories must be determined, and units of analysis selected.

Units of analysis include (1) the recording unit - the smallest body of context in which the appearance of a referent is found (a referent is a single occurrence of a content element) and (2) the context unit - the largest body of context that may be examined in characterizing a recording unit. There are several units of analysis: a word, theme, character, paragraph, sentence, and item. According to Berelson the unit most frequently used is the item, the whole natural unit employed by producers of symbol material. It may be a book, magazine, article, or story. One of the most useful units of analysis is the theme. A theme is a single statement of the meaning of a sentence or sentences, an assertion, a proposition. In content analysis more than one unit of analysis may be used. Ordinarily the analysis is limited to manifest content not latent intentions (Berelson, 1952).

Major Instrument Used in Analysis of Reading Series

For coding the reading comprehension methodology in the reading series, that is, the purposes, directives, questions, activities and skill exercises which a teacher could use to develop a pupil's reading comprehension, Barrett's Taxonomy of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension was used. This taxonomy had been found useful by many other investigators in their content analysis of the questions and activities in teachers' manuals (Cooke, 1970; Hatcher, 1971; Nicholson, 1977). It had been found so useful, in fact, that only one modification of

Barrett's Taxonomy was suggested in any of the studies surveyed by the writer.

This taxonomy was designed by Thomas Barrett (1968) for the purpose of providing classroom teachers with a means that would enable them to identify the aspects of reading comprehension which they wished to teach. An additional function of the taxonomy was to enable teachers to classify particular levels and skills of reading comprehension demanded by the questions, exercises, and activities in instructional materials. (See Appendix 2 for Taxonomy)

Reliability and Validity of Barrett's Taxonomy. As a means of checking the reliability and validity of the writer's judgment in using Barrett's Taxonomy the writer, having coded the reading comprehension methodology for selected pieces of data, submitted the same data to a panel of judges for coding. These judges were all doctoral students familiar with statistical techniques and the coding of data. Before they coded the samples, however, they practised using Barrett's Taxonomy.

Each rater was given a total of three stories to code one from each grade level and each taken from a different reading series. The sections of the manual and workbook relevant to these selections were then analyzed by the three judges and the results compared with those of the writer. The results showed a consistency of 82%, 86% and 88% respectively with the writer's coding.

This high percentage agreement between the writer and jury was partially due to the writer's having to sometimes code an item into more than one category. The judges also coded certain items into more than one category. To accept agreement, of course, the majority of categories coded by the writer and judges for an individual item had to be mutually acceptable. The fact that all four coders found it difficult to code all items in only one category illustrates one of the major problems with this taxonomy; that comprehension abilities are often interrelated and overlap, a factor not accounted for by Barrett. Because of this interrelatedness the writer did obtain a small amount of overlap when the percentages of items coded were totalled. For example, in coding the questions contained in the grade four level of Starting Points in Reading the following numbers in brackets shown in Table 3.4 represent the number of items which overlapped. In other words they were coded in another category as well.

As can be seen in Table 3.4 the amount of overlap was not very great but did constitute a fair proportion of the coding. This is shown more clearly in the percentage overlap obtained in coding the reading comprehension methodology portrayed in Table 3.5.

This range of percentages of overlap demonstrates the problem with being able to definitely decide on an item's fitting only one category, thus lending support to the notion that comprehension is not always a hierarchical sequential process. The interrelatedness of particular comprehension abilities becomes more evident in a category such as Outlining which necessitates a knowledge of main points and supporting details. Also, it is often necessary to first recognize and understand relevant details

Table 3.4

Questions Coded by Level and Skill of Reading Comprehension from Grade Four of Starting Points in Reading

	Literal Level		Inferential Level	
Skill	Questions Coded	Questions in Overlap Category	Questions Coded	Questions in Overlap Category
details	180	(7)	65	(1)
sequence	1	0		
main ideas	13	0	24	(3)
compare/contrast	8	0	35	(3)
character traits	4	(2)	118	(5)
cause-effect	28	(4)	181	(10)
figurative lang.			58	(5)
predicting out.			55	(2)

	Reorganization Level	
summarizing	4	0
classifying	2	0
	Appreciative Level	
emotional response	35	0
character traits	36	(16)
use language	72	(15)
imagery	23	(5)

Skill	Evaluative Level	
reality-fantasy	22	(1)
fact-opinion	34	(23)
adequacy-validity	1	0
appropriateness	4	0
worth	39	(1)

Table 3.5

Percentage Overlap in Analysis of Reading
Comprehension Methodology

Series	Questions	Skill Ex. Manual	Skill Ex. Workbook	Activities	Purposes	Directives
Highroads (1)	6.7	-	-	-	-	-
Treasury	1.0	-	-	-	-	-
Canadian Reading Development	5.9	1.7	1.4	-	-	7.5
Highroads (2)	10.2	-	1.6	-	2.5	6.1
Young Canada Readers	8.0	-	3.7	1.5	0.9	6.6
Canadian Ginn Basic	13.7	3.8	6.4	1.1	1.2	8.9
Gage Strategies	11.5	-	9.9	-	6.6	10.9
Starting Points	11.2	2.1	6.7	7.3	14.3	16.4
Nelson Language Development Reading Program			6.8			

in a passage in order to infer main ideas and cause-effect relationships, or to judge whether a selection is real or imaginary, adequate or valid. For example, the question "Why was life more dangerous for the seals in the spring than in the winter" (Starting Points in Reading, Teacher's Guidebook for b_2, p. 13) required the reader to first know certain facts about seals which had been given in the story, and then make appropriate inferences from these facts using several cognitive abilities.

Barrett's explanation of inferring character traits states that here the student is "required to hypothesize about the nature of the characters" (Barrett, 1968, p. 3). This should also be extended to include characteristics as well for often this item could not be fitted into this or any other category. Another difficulty was experienced in coding a question which asked for the reader's explanation as to the character's feelings or actions--did this fit 5.2 "Identification with characters and incidents" or was it more appropriately 3.5--"Inferring cause-effect relationships" where the "student is required to hypothesize about the motivations of characters and their interaction with time and space?" (Barrett, 1968, p. 4).

The most commonly added categories under the umbrella of OTHER were drawing conclusions, inferring overall general meanings of authors' statements, generalizing, personal reaction involving more than an emotional response on the reader's part, speculation, reasoning, and making logical relationships other than that of a cause-effect nature.

Other factors within written passages which were not accounted for in Barrett's Taxonomy are such factors as story setting, the author's style, tone, purpose and intent, and matters of form.

Additional questions need to be answered before aspects of Barrett's Taxonomy can be clarified: Does synthesizing mean the consolidation of ideas of information from outside sources, or different sources of information within the text, or both? Can following directions be classified as a comprehension task? And if so, where does it fit within the present Taxonomy?

In spite of these shortcomings the writer was able to use Barrett's Taxonomy amended when necessary to categorize the major trends in comprehension.

Units of Analysis and Procedures

In order to carry out the necessary investigation required by the research questions different units of analysis and procedures were employed. An explanation of these in relation to each of the major research questions is presented below.

Research question 1: reading theory. To determine how the theory of reading with specific respect to reading comprehension has evolved in the reading series the introductory chapters and other relevant sections of the teachers' guidebooks for all series were studied. While reading the manuals statements explicitly referring to reading as a process and to reading comprehension were recorded. These were often statements of the program's objectives which referred to reading comprehension or categorizations of particular skills as reading comprehension skills.

Research question 2: reading comprehension methodology.

The purposes, directives, activities, questions, and skill exercises within each reading series designed for developing reading comprehension comprised the methodology recorded. These were mostly coded from the teacher's manuals. Skill exercises were also coded from the workbooks. In the older series these aspects were often found in the readers themselves. Definitions of these categories are:

Purposes	(1) A pre-reading statement that directs the student's reading of a selection. This may be stated in a declarative or interrogative form (2) A statement given the reader during the guided reading of the story which directs the reader's attention to a specific aspect of the text
Directives	A statement that gives explicit instructions to the teacher for conducting comprehension oriented tasks during the directed reading activity
Questions	A statement directed to the reader during the directed reading activity that requires the reader to think about what he has read. This will take the interrogative form or declarative form
Skill exercise	a written exercise designed to reinforce a particular reading comprehension skill
Activity	a procedure or act which extends and expands the development of a reading comprehension skill

Each selection in the reader was read followed by an analysis of the purposes, directives, questions, activities, and skill exercises in the manual designed for that selection. These were coded by reading comprehension level and skill according to Barrett's Taxonomy and when necessary the selection was reread in order to classify a particular item. Categories were added to Barrett's Taxonomy when needed.

Research question 3: relation between theory and methodology. Having first noted the reading theory and then coded the methodology the writer studied the relation between these two forms of data and also further studied the content within the manuals and workbooks before drawing conclusions as to whether the program's view of reading was consistent with its methodology.

Research question 4: relation between curriculum content and methodology. Often within the teacher's guidebook or within an accompanying chart the particular reading skills for which methodology was designed in the series were listed. The consistency between this and the writer's findings from coding the methodology with reference to reading comprehension was examined. In addition, the consistency between the authors' labelling of the skills developed by the particular methodology in the workbook and the results of the writer's coding of these exercises was also examined. This was both an ongoing and a summary process. It was a summary process in that the curriculum content specified in the series was compared with the total findings of the coding. In addition, a random selection of items was recoded at the end and the findings compared against the stated curriculum content and original coding.

Research question 5: relation between reader content and reading comprehension methodology. Before examining the relationship between the content of the readers and the methodology for reading comprehension related to that content categories were created for classifying the type of content--poetry and prose; and the form of the content -- narrative, descriptive, expository, literary or functional. Within prose there were several sub-categories which often overlapped but could still be reasonably placed in one category or another. Poetry was not divided into sub-categories because of its complex nature which thwarted any attempt to do so. In order to look at the relationship between the content and methodology the reader selections were read. This in turn allowed observations about the reader content to be made. One of the aspects of the prose content which was studied was its Canadian orientation. A selection was categorized as Canadian if it contained references which were distinctly Canadian. It was felt that this Canadian quality of the content might reveal the presence or absence of influences on the readers.

Categories evolved as a result of surveying those used in previous content analysis research, from checking children's literature sources, and a trial classification using the content of another reading series. Additional categories emerged during the study. The categories applied in the study for type and form of content were:

Categories: Form	Definitions of Form and Examples of Type
1. Narrative	a story form of writing which includes as types of content; realistic and personal stories that deal with real-life events and situations that have relevant and personal meaning to a child's life Excerpts from children's literature such as Heidi, Bambi Traditional literature of myths, legends, folktales, fables, and fairytales Stories of animals and nature, adventure, humour, interpersonal relations Stories moralistic or religious in nature Biographies and tales of fantasy including imaginary stories and tall tales
2. Descriptive/ Informational	A form of writing which refers to, constitutes, or is grounded in matters of observation and experience: a form of writing which describes events, situations, people, conveys information in a less story-like form. Includes as types of content: Stories of science and history Biographies Selections of nature and animals Geographical selections
3. Expository/ Informational	A more expository form of writing; discourse that is designed specifically to convey information - - a sequence of connected sentences which is an explanation or a description of a particular topic. Informational prose is often characterized by terseness, density of detail and specific generalization, or a series of generalizations about the topic in question Includes as types of content: Selections about technology, science, and history
4. Literary	Regarded as different from narrative here although narrative writing is a literary form. Refers to the form of writing peculiar

	to drama and poetry and thus the content types are plays and poetry.
5. Functional	A selection that relates to functional reading, such as newspaper articles, recipes, or directions

As each selection was read it was classified according to its form and content type. A brief annotation was made which included notes about the nationality of the writer, themes in the content, basic story line and additional pertinent observations. Examples to illustrate this are found in Appendix 3.

The type of content in each reader was summarized and recorded on a separate sheet, each sheet was then synthesized to produce a summary of the content of the total reading program. This was repeated for the form of the content.

The content was recorded prior to an examination of the reading methodology for that selection. During the analysis of themethodology the relationship between the type of the reader selection and suggested methodology was noted with particular attention being given the nature of the questions asked. In addition, before any conclusions regarding the relationship between the reader content and methodology were drawn a random selection of samples was recoded according to content type the results of which were checked against the original coding of the content and a comparison between the recoded content type and methodology was then made. From this and the picture of the theory, content, and methodology for each series which emerged during the study the writer was able to make statements about the relationship between the reader content in each reading series and the reading comprehension methodology suggested for developing pupils' understanding of that content.

Research question 6: relation between specific content in the reading series and developments in the field of reading and other fields. The findings resulting from the analysis carried out in the preceding research questions and from a qualitative examination of the content of the reading series were integrated with the writer's background knowledge or developments in educational thought, curriculum, reading, and other related fields that had occurred during the period of the study. Within the field of reading the findings were related to developments in reading theory and reading research.

Presentation of Data

Chapter 4 serves to introduce characteristics of Canadian reading series and the existing developments in educational thought, curriculum, and reading up to 1925. Each of Chapters 5, 6, and 7 represent a subperiod within the total period of the study. Beginning with Chapter 5 the results of the analysis of those Canadian reading series selected for study are presented. The format followed in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 starts with an explanation of developments in education and curriculum and developments in the field of reading particularly with respect to reading theory and research for the time period covered by each chapter. From here a brief glimpse into

Canadian educational history takes place. After this is a discussion of the interrelation between characteristics of the reading series and the background recounted for the period wherein the data pertaining to the reading series is unveiled.

The frequencies and percentages coded with respect to the reading comprehension methodology and reader content are portrayed in tabular form. Where appropriate time-lines, charts, tables, graphs, and figures are employed to enable the reader to trace developments through time, to illustrate interrelationships in time, and to highlight differences between reading series.

Chapter 4

EMPHASIS ON ORAL READING: 1846-1923

This chapter sets the initial stage for an ongoing spectrum of scenes which form discrete happenings in time and, yet, are interrelated and connected through time. Thus, the chapter precedes any indepth analysis of the reading series selected for study although the characteristics of early Canadian readers are briefly described and the interrelation between these characteristics and developments in education, curriculum, and reading are discussed. In this period events took place which left traces that have lingered on even to the present day.

Major Curriculum Trends: 1846-1923

It is generally accepted that curriculum as a field of specialization was born during the early days of the twentieth century at a time of rapid change (Molnar and Zahorick, 1977). But before this major events in education took place which affected the curriculum of American schools. According to Parker (1970) the largest factor which had contributed to changing elementary school practice in the United States between 1800 and 1860 was the influence exerted by the ideas and writings of Pestalozzi.

Pestalozzi's major aim was to "psychologize education" where the goal of education was to develop the child's interests, abilities and "faculties." There were different meanings associated with the phrase "development of the faculties" but Pestalozzi used the phrase most often to mean the "perfecting of some special capacity through training, the acquisition of some particular kind of skill" and "the training of general powers" (Parker, 1970, pp. 277-278). This notion of developing the faculties subsequently became related to the classroom practice of disciplining the mind.

Pestalozzian ideas influenced both British and American education. American educational journals,and educators such as Barnard, Mann,and Sheldon helped to stimulate interest in Pestalozzian methodology in the United States. Among the most important Pestalozzian principles implemented in several British and American schools were object teaching and oral instruction where real experiences and observation formed the basis of classroom instruction. Instead of book recitation which had marked classroom instruction to that time the teacher now raised questions directed toward an object which was the center of attention. Certain formal Pestalozzian aspects of teaching were adopted as well. In particular, the mechanical routine of breaking a subject into its elements where mastery of each step was prerequisite to the introduction of the next was practiced in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Herbart was influenced to some extent by Pestalozzian ideas but unlike Pestalozzi, Herbart was chiefly concerned with moral education and the teaching of history and literature as the means through which moral ideas could be developed. Herbart also rejected Pestalozzi's notion of "development of the faculties" substituting instead the idea that instruction in different subjects should be concerned with developing pupils' interests. As a result of Herbart's works and ideas, continued by his followers, methods of instruction in the elementary classroom again changed leading eventually to a more formalized approach to teaching. It was due to the Herbartian influence, for example, that teaching methodology in many European schools in the latter part of the nineteenth century came to consist of five formal steps often used with each individual lesson or topic. These were the steps of preparation, presentation, association, generalization, and application. The general aim now was to enable the pupil to "organize and structure his knowledge with special emphasis on the development of general concepts or general ideas" (Dunkel, 1969, p. 117). Thus there was a shift from a moral to a cognitive emphasis. As stated by Dunkel (1969):

> The Herbartian movement became a strong influence in the United States due to the efforts of the McMurry brothers and Charles de Garmo. The cultural-epoch theory of Herbartianism was the theoretical basis for the selection and organization of the components of the curriculum according to Herbartian philosophy. This, in turn, reflected Darwin's theory of evolution for Herbartian philosophy included a belief that the evolution of the human race is 'recapitulated' through individual growth and development. Therefore, history and literature were organized in cultural epochs and used to represent man's stages of historical development. (p. 117)

Direct influences of Herbartian ideas can be seen in the ideas of American educators at this time. Charles Eliot campaigned for literature to be a core part of the curriculum to replace the traditional readers and Colonel Parker attempted to introduce concentration in the school curriculum where certain subjects were the central areas of study and formal subjects were to be taught incidentally to these (Parker, 1970). This was carrying Herbart's idea of interrelating subjects to the extreme, an idea which had been expanded by one of his students, Ziller.

Sequel (1966) observed that between 1900 and 1910 Herbart's steps of instruction also elaborated by Ziller were very much a part of American classroom practice but Herbartianism as a theoretical movement is considered to have died around 1905 in the United States (Dunkel, 1969). This does not mean, however, that its effect did not continue for as Dunkel (1969) stated: "Courses of study and teachers' manuals also may have contained stronger or fainter traces of Herbartianism in some form. . . . On these points formal studies are lacking" (p. 124).

The decline of Herbartianism may have been partially due to the introduction of other forces around the turn of the century. Now a scientific fervour entered the domain of education a result of several interacting factors. The beginning of this scientific spirit can perhaps be laid at Herbert Spencer's feet. Spencer, a British philosopher, had written an essay on "What knowledge is of most worth?" which was widely read in the United States. Spencer's position was that scientific knowledge and study was the most valuable.

The scientific spirit which began to permeate all areas of education was partly a result of the emerging of psychology as a field wherein a scientific approach to the study of humans was being applied. Chiefly through G. S. Hall's work and studies of child development, American psychology began to take shape at the beginning of the twentieth century. Hall's work laid the foundation for a more scientific study of human characteristics, and his impact on pedagogy was felt for, as noted by Cremin (1961), "Hall was really urging that the content of the curriculum could itself be determined from the data of child development" (p. 103).

Around this time, too, there emerged a major figure in American psychology, E. L. Thorndike, who worked actively in human intelligence. Thorndike, through his creation of scientific tests designed to measure aspects of human behavior, contributed to a more scientific approach to education. Once tests were created they could be used to measure student progress in schools and this is, of course, what happened. The availability of tests, therefore, brought the possibility of a much more efficient approach to educational measurement.

Another major figure appearing at the turn of the century destined to have a tremendous impact on education was John Dewey, often referred to as "the father of progressive education." According to Parker (1912) the educational writings and experiments of Dewey were "the most influential factors in stimulating a general revision in educational theory in the United States" (p. 474).

Even before the dawn of the twentieth century Dewey had been writing and in 1896 had criticized the cultural-epoch aspects of Herbartianism. Later in How We Think Dewey (1910) criticized the five formal steps included in Herbartianism. Dewey emphasized that reflective thought began with a problem or difficulty to be solved and did not involve separate thought processes which were required by Herbart's formal steps.

Dewey was also critical of public education for not having investigated ways of developing children's inferential thinking ability and was greatly dismayed at the mechanistic approach to teaching and learning so prevalent in the schools at that time. Dewey (1910) stated the following:

> Information merely as information implies no special training of intellectual capacity. . . . But there is all the difference in the world whether the information is treated as an end in itself or is made an integral part of the training of thought . . . the only information that can be put to logical use is that acquired in the course of thinking. (p. 58)

This statement of Dewey's illustrates his philosophy of teaching and learning. For Dewey both education and curriculum were to relate to life and center on the child. This is evident in such statements as "the child becomes the sun about which the appliances of education revolve; he is the center about which they are organized" (Dewey, 1900, p. 53) and the following statement taken from Child and Curriculum where Dewey (1902) commented upon the difference between his philosophy and the traditional view of the child:

> But we have here sufficiently fundamental divergences, first the narrow but personal world of the child against the impersonal but infinitely extended world of space and time; second, the unity, the single whole heartedness of the child's life, and the specializations and divisions of the curriculum; third, an abstract principle of logical classification and arrangement and the practical and emotional bonds of child life. (p. 14)

According to Dewey (1902) this logical point of view translated into curriculum content and methodology assumed that "the development [of the child] has reached a certain positive stage of fulfilment. It neglects the process and considers the outcome" (p. 107).

With World War I came thorough, brief, and efficient training programs for war-related occupations. After the war industry retained its concern with efficiency and society itself having been shocked at the revelations resulting from the war was also ready to re-examine the goals of education. Given this climate it is not surprising that both a scientific and efficiency effect spilled over into education. As noted by Tyler (1971), "after World War I leaders of curriculum development sought to base their guiding principles upon the results of scientific studies of education" (p. 25).

The National Education Association was very concerned with the principle efficiency and appointed a committee in 1911 to investigate the uses of time within the elementary school. In fact, all of the committees appointed by the National Education Association between 1915 and 1919 were concerned with efficiency and were very dominant influences on curriculum (Hunkins, 1976). But a more potent influence still was the work of educational thinkers such as Bobbitt and Charters, both of whom launched efforts to make curriculum construction a more scientific endeavour.

Bobbitt, for example, took the principle of job-analysis used in industry and adapted it to curriculum-making. In 1918 he wrote the first book devoted to curriculum development which virtually "set off curriculum as a field of professional specialization" (Kliebard, 1976, p. 245). This book and its later edition show how Bobbitt was influenced by Taylor's Principles of Scientific Management (1911) which had been written for industrial application.

Both Bobbitt and Charters believed that observation of human activities and society should be the basis for determining the curriculum; that once the real world had been analyzed the curriculum would then become a set of experiences related to that world. This did not mean, however, that experiences would just be thrown into the school but rather that specific objectives were first to be determined keeping in mind the needs and interests of the child. The end goal of education was to lead the child into becoming a productive adult in society.

By 1925 Dewey had written such books as My Pedagogic Creed (1897), School and Society (1899), Child and Curriculum (1902), Democracy and Education (1915), and Schools of Tomorrow (1915) and his ideas and thinking were having an effect on education in the United States. Mostly because of his influence what is referred to as the Progressive Education Movement was born. Within that school it was men like Kilpatrick who helped to translate progressive principles into classroom practice. In 1918 Kilpatrick wrote an article describing the project method as a means of organizing curriculum and instruction. Between 1915 and 1921 there was an increasing use of the project method and problem-solving approach in so-called progressive schools.

With the close of the first quarter of the twentieth century, then, two apparently opposite movements – the scientific with its accompanying 'cult of efficiency', and 'progressivism' with its concern for child-centered education were having an effect on educational thinking. Ironically both movements combined to focus attention on the child and critics began to voice more strongly their discontent with present educational practices. Several of these criticisms were directed at the lack of meaning inherent within the mechanical and rote methods of teaching in vogue at that time.

Many of the developments just described had an effect on the field of reading.

Major Developments in Reading : 1846-1923

Research in reading had begun in the late 1880's in Europe but by 1910 the majority of reading research was being carried out by American investigators. This surge of interest in reading research in the United States was probably due, to some extent at least, to the work of Huey.

In 1908 Huey wrote the Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading considered by most reading educators to represent the first major milestone in the history of the reading field. In his book Huey summarized the experimental studies of reading done to that time which for the most part had investigated the physiological nature of reading. On the basis of these studies, most of which were concerned with eye movements and perception, Huey was able to come to major conclusions regarding the process. He showed for example that most of these early studies had proven that silent reading was faster than oral and that wholes rather than parts were focussed upon during reading. Based on his own experiments Huey was convinced that reading was a complex process, that context and imagery played important roles in interpreting what was read, and that the amount interpreted varied according to the nature of the reading matter.

Although Huey's theory of the relation of meaning to reading may not have been either complete or entirely accurate he was probably the first to consider the reading process a meaningful activity. Huey (1908) even concluded that meaning was "part and parcel of word sound and word utterance" (p. 164).

The scientific developments taking place in psychology affected reading. Once reading tests were created they could be given to ascertain an individual's reading progress. When these tests were given to children at this time the results showed that many were reading at a very slow rate and with poor comprehension although they could read orally with accurate word recognition. And reading tests given to American soldiers during the first world war revealed that many were not proficient readers.

The educational psychologists, Judd, Buswell, and Thorndike continued Huey's investigations of the reading process. Judd and Buswell, at the University of Chicago, continued the work on eye movements and based on their research emphasized that silent reading was more important than oral reading. In 1917 Thorndike described a piece of reading research in an article entitled "Reading as Reasoning." Based on his analysis of the reading done by his subjects Thorndike (1917) concluded that reading was like solving a problem in mathematics where the reader "must select, repress, soften, emphasize, correlate, and organize all under the influence of the right mental set or purpose" (p. 329).

The prevailing concern for efficiency was also translated into the field of reading and it was partly because of the efficiency of silent reading when compared to oral that it received emphasis in the Committee on the Economy of Time's report, Minimum Essentials in Certain Subjects of the Elementary Curriculum (1915). In this report silent reading was considered more important than oral.

Because of these events and the growing concern with meaning in education sparked by the progressive movement criticism mounted against the form of reading instruction currently in practice. Parker, Huey, and Dewey had all criticized current practices for their mechanical drill and lack of emphasis on understanding. Gray (1917) in the sixteenth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, wrote a chapter called "The Relation of Silent Reading to Economy in Education," wherein he described silent reading as a tool for acquiring ideas. Gray, working at the University of Chicago with Judd and Buswell, came to be regarded as one of the foremost authorities on reading in the entire history of the field. Among other major points made by Gray (1917) were:

(1) Silent reading is a more rapid process than oral reading

(2) Comprehension is usually greater in silent reading than in oral reading

(3) The ability to comprehend the meaning of what is read improves throughout the grades

(4) Rate and quality of silent reading may be improved through training.

Gray's conclusions, based on studies to that time, were that ability to get meaning should receive first consideration both in oral and silent reading instruction and that emphasis should be given silent reading beginning in the third grade and increasing through the intermediate and upper grades. Gray also suggested that reading textbooks should include selections that lent themselves to various purposes for developing comprehension. Such purposes might include determining the central thought and supporting details of a selection, reproducing a passage or answering questions about it, and getting at subtle meanings in print. Whatever the purpose the teacher "should always ask questions or use some device which will keep attention centered on the thought" (Gray, 1917, p. 32).

As mentioned earlier,by 1917 research into the nature of comprehension had been conducted by Thorndike (1917) who had also concluded that the ability to reason and make judgments were essential to effective silent reading and that exercises given students should demand answers to questions or a summary of what had been read. Thorndike's research was reported in the eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education by Gray (1919) who also reported the results of his own research in training comprehension ability. This research lead Gray to recommend training in comprehension which had also been recommended by Judd (1918). Judd had concluded from his investigations that the child's interest in the material he read was a primary force in motivating him to read. Gray also recommended that reading ability should be developed to suit a number of purposes.

In the eighteenth yearbook a great deal of attention centered on the relation of rate or speed of reading to reading comprehension. Most of the research reported in this regard were studies of the "hygiene of reading"--the physiological nature of reading, and the effect of perceptual factors such as length of lines and space between letters on reading. Here Huey's work was a major reference. A year later, 1920, the society's yearbook was devoted to materials of instruction and reading.

All of the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education published between 1915 and 1919 had directed attention toward reading as a silent reading process as had the scientific and progressive developments. The climax came with the appearance of the twentieth yearbook, part II of which was the report of the Society's Committee on Silent Reading (1921). In the introduction Horn (1921), chairman of the committee, noted how "teachers are particularly ready just now to undertake any new method which goes under the name of "silent reading" (p. viii) and suggested that it was important to distinguist between four qualities of the reading process; speed, comprehension, organization, remembrance, and technical skills.

Studies were reported that had investigated the silent reading process. One of these had been carried out by Burgess (1921) who, on the basis of his findings, remarked that "the reading process awakens in readers conscious thoughts and memories of the most varied character" (p. 29) and further remarked that "the important question is . . . is he [reader] able to grasp the gist of the material?" (Burgess, 1921, p. 29). This illustrates the developing concern with meaning in reading and the influence of Thorndike's contention that reading was a reasoning, problem-solving process.

O'Brien (1921) found, as a result of his study of reading, that improvement in rapid reading did not guarantee increased accuracy of comprehension and thus recommended that if improvement in comprehension was desired special training would have to be designed. Hoover's study was also reported in the twentieth yearbook. Hoover had investigated the effect of "motivated drill" on silent reading. His thesis was that pleasure in activities would bring success rather than repetitive drill only, that interest and motivation were the necessary ingredients to successful learning, that play could be a profitable way to make drill enjoyable, and that such drill should be "conducted for each pupil in light of his particular abilities and according to his needs" (Hoover, 1921, p. 80). His results supported his thesis and he concluded, naturally, that "greater use must be made of the doctrine 'interest in education'" (Hoover, 1921, p. 89).

By this time research had also been carried out to determine the effects of various "study or organizational aids" on the comprehension and retention of material read. Yoakum's study, reported in the twentieth yearbook, had been conducted to determine the effect of a single reading of material on learning or the extent of memory of "logical materials." Yoakum (1921) found that in many cases a single reading resulted only in a small proportion of retention of the content read but that the initial test he had given prior to subjects having read contributed to retention. This supported the research and thinking to date regarding the importance of having a purpose and mental set established prior to silent reading.

Germane (1921) compared outlining with summarizing and re-reading to determine which was the most effective method of studying when reading. In his first experiment pupils summarized a brief article they had read and also re-read the article. This demonstrated that re-reading was superior to summarizing for retention of information. In a second experiment subjects were given questions prior to their reading a brief article after which they summarized the article. This demonstrated the superiority of summarizing as a more efficient study method than re-reading. On the basis of his findings Germane (1921) concluded that "use by the pupils of specific questions on the assignment is a much more efficient method of studying than the expenditure of the same amount of time in undirected reading" (p. 113). Another study reported by Greene (1921) showed that children needed to be given training in reading different types of material as the nature of the material was found to be a factor affecting reading comprehension.

Even though the above studies of reading are briefly described they serve to illustrate tones of the scientific, progressive and efficiency oriented era now entered into.

Around 1921 professional books about reading were beginning to appear. John O'Brien's Silent Reading; With Special Reference to Speed published in 1921 was one of the first, a seminal book on reading, followed by Clarence Stone's Silent and Oral Reading (1922), and Wheat's The Teaching of Reading (1923). Other professional publications included Reading: Its Natural Development (1918) by Charles Judd; Buswell's Fundamental Reading Habits, a Study of Their Development (1922); and Silent Reading: A Study of Various Types (1922) by Judd and Buswell. These keystones of reading research provided by Judd and Buswell, along with the research and writings of Gray, established Chicago as a major center for reading theory and research at this time.

Most of the professional writers drew attention to the importance of having both oral and silent reading in a school reading program but emphasized most silent reading. For example, Stone's book included both but gave special consideration to the practical application of silent reading instruction in classrooms.

Stone (1922) felt that key issues for the teacher to resolve were:

(1) the relation of oral reading to silent reading
(2) the type of content to use in reading instruction
(3) the problem of securing interest or motivation
(4) ways to develop pupils' sense of word meanings as essential to comprehension
(5) to develop appreciation of literature
(6) to apply reading abilities to practical life
(7) to teach efficient study skills. (p. 80)

These issues seem to be representative of developments in the reading field at that time. In actual fact, Stone summarized reading research and listed as factors which affected silent reading the type of material read--narrative being easier than expository or poetry, the familiarity of the material to the reader, and the perceptual and mechanical abilities of the reader. For the intermediate grades Stone recommended that attention be given to the type of content and interpretation and provision made for extensive reading. In making this recommendation Stone (1922) referred to Bobbitt for support. For his recommendations regarding training in silent reading Stone referred to Gray's research.

Stone (1922) noted that the development of literary appreciation was one of the primary aims of reading instruction and yet the schools had failed in this regard largely due to an overemphasis on mechanics and oral reading and by forcing adult literature and adult standards upon children. He suggested that the general method for developing an appreciation lesson involved three phases: (1) provision of an initial large view of the whole, (2) analysis into essential elements, (3) a final perspective of the whole. In teaching poetry Stone advocated a preparatory step which would provide the student with motivation or necessary background but warned against having the pupil study the poem, the best method being for the teacher to read to the students and clear up any difficulties. Stone cautioned against over-analysis and proposed that there should only be memorization of pieces that the children personally liked. For training pupils in comprehension Stone recommended exercises in outlining, selecting central thoughts, selecting topical headings, summarizing, selecting major ideas and subordinate ideas, underlining, identifying topical sentences, notetaking, questioning, retelling, and rewriting.

Along with the appearance of professional texts on reading textbook writers began producing reading series based on silent reading procedures (Smith, 1965). As noted by Smith (1965), "the entire school public seemed obsessed with the idea of teaching silent reading. . . which would lend itself to an objective checking of comprehension and speed" (p. 163).

Thus by 1921 reading research as well as reading theory was concerned with reading as a silent meaningful process rather than an oral, mechanical one. Factors such as the rate of reading, different study or organizational methods, the importance of purpose, the importance of grasping the meaning of the content, and the effect of different kinds of material on reading comprehension had been isolated as factors which affected the comprehension of written material. Memory as it related to reading was being investigated as was an important linguistic characteristic , the form of reading material. And reading was beginning to be conceived a thinking process influenced greatly by the work of Thorndike.

Canadian Educational History: 1846-1923

Pestalozzi's influence carried over into Canadian education as well. Educators like Egerton Ryerson had made themselves thoroughly familiar with Pestalozzianism. Ryerson made class teaching possible by his authorization of a uniform series of textbooks and Alexander Forrester acquainted teachers in eastern Canada with the object method. Between 1870 and 1900 many articles in Canadian educational journals dealt with the scientific method and Spencer's famed essay also appeared (Phillips, 1957).

Herbartian ideas also found their way to Canada illustrated by a number of articles discussing Herbartian ideas that were published in Educational Weekly between January and June, 1885 (Phillips, 1957). By 1905 the ideas of progressive education were also filtering through given that the provincial departments of education now approved the notion that education should be child-centered, and the scientific movement was also reflected in Canadian educational journals. Canadian educators concerned with reading instruction were certainly aware of the current reading climate at this time. Hughes (1909), an inspector for schools in Toronto, wrote Teaching to Read wherein he expressed his belief that

> There is no other subject in which the results have been so unsatisfactory as in reading, considering the amount of time devoted to it in school. The chief reason for the failure has been that the aim has been to train the

> race to read aloud instead of training to read. The power of reading well means the power of getting thought from visable language rapidly, definitely and comprehensively. Very nearly all reading has to be done silently, yet in the past, the aim of the schools has been to train pupils to read aloud. (p. vii)

A much greater range of examples which exemplify the presence of a number of the developments just discussed can be found in Phillips' (1957) Development of Education in Canada. But were any of these developments or those which occurred in the field of reading for the period reflected in the Canadian reading series adopted between the middle 1800's and 1923?

Characteristics of Canadian Reading Series: 1846-1923

Reading in the early years of the nineteenth century was a mechanical exercise with the Bible the sole textbook used for reading instruction. By the middle 1800's, however, many elementary school children were being taught to read through the use of a reader. During the last part of the nineteenth century composition, literature, and history were added to the elementary school curriculum (possibly reflecting a Herbartian influence) while the three R's retained their importance. By 1900, however, due to the current concern with efficiency more time was spent on the three R's in the elementary school than hitherto.

Reading Theory and Methodology in Canadian Reading Series Adopted from 1846-1923

From about 1830 to 1846 Lindley Murray's English Reader, or Pieces in Prose and Verse from the Best Writers, was used as the basis of reading instruction in Canadian English speaking schools (Parvin, 1965; Phillips, 1957). In the preface to the English Reader Murray (1844) stated that the objectives of his reader were "to improve youth in the art of reading." The "art of reading" to which he referred was that of oral reading or elocution with its "necessary pauses, emphasis, and tones" (p. 2). Murray's brief discussion of the aims of the reader precluded any reference to reading as a process or to reading comprehension. No mention of methodology was made by Murray but the implication seemed to be that the children would learn from imitation and recitation. This seems to be suggested by Murray (1844) when he stated:

> When the learner has acquired a habit of reading such sentences with justness and facility, he will readily apply that habit and improvements he has made, to sentences more complicated and irregular. (p.2)

In addition, it is likely that in order to appreciate the beauty and morals of the content much was memorized by the students. Up to the 1840's the "process of education was getting this content into the mind; and this could be done with the least violence to form by having the pupil memorize the words of a textbook" (Phillips, 1957, p. 408).

Between 1846 and 1866 the first authorized graded series of readers was introduced to Canadian schools. These were the Irish Readers which remained a major influence on Canadian elementary school children until almost the end of the nineteenth century (Phillips, 1957; Repo, 1974). The view of reading which characterized these readers was like that in the English Reader --

that reading equalled the oral pronunciation of words. Also, in both the English Reader and the Irish National Readers a great deal of attention was devoted to "rooting or etymology. The following example taken from the Irish National Readers (1865) serves to illustrate the approach ro reading found in these readers.

> The Teacher having seen that his Pupils can spell every word in this sentence, and read it with proper pronunciation and accent, may examine them upon it as follows: - who was Linaeaeus? A Swedish Naturalist. From what Latin root is Naturalist formed?- Natura, nature. What is the first affix added to Natura?-All - of or belonging to. What part of speech is Natural? - an adjective. . . . Any affix in characterize? - Ize, to make. The meaning of the word? (p.v)

This approach ro reading may have been a natural outcome of the approach to teaching spelling which had up to this time been a large part of language instruction in the classroom. Until now language form and not the understanding of written language had been the major goal of many educators. This had probably been influenced by Noah Webster who had created an American speller in 1783 because of his fervent conviction that America as a nation should have a uniform language. For several years later it continued to be the major instrument through which written language instruction was given to pupils and, of course, oral pronunciation of words was the method used. Lindley Murray may have been influence by Webster when writing his own reader as he had first lived in the United States before moving to England. Given, too, that oral pronunciation as a 'reading' strategy was very closely related to the spelling process the view of reading present in the *Irish National Readers* is not so surprising.

Memorization and recitation continued to be the dominant methodology in the classroom through the term of the *Irish National Series*. This series, however, did introduce a manner of questioning shown in the previous example that illustrated the approach to reading found in the series. And, because the *Irish National Books* were graded in difficulty (to some extent) and were uniform in content whole class teaching became possible. We know from historical accounts that the strategy of questioning was used in Canadian classrooms between 1850 and 1875 which may have been partially due to the influence of these readers.

Neither the *Canadian Readers* published in the late 1860's, nor the *Royal*, *Ontario*, or *Victorian* readers published in the last years of the nineteenth century contained any description of reading. The Ontario Readers, dominant in Canada from 1880 to 1922, went through several reprintings but in none of its revisions was there a discussion of reading or reading methodology. The implication arising from studying these readers and gathering information from Canadian historical sources was that reading was equated with oral reading throughout these years and reading instruction in the classroom involved some questioning, recitation, and memorization. It is worth noting that until 1916 teaching manuals did not accompany readers and remarks by the authors, therefore, were often limited to the space provided by the preface.

The first manual published to accompany readers in the intermediate grades was most likely the Ontario Teachers' Manual, Notes on the Ontario Reader, produced in 1916. However, this manual did not refer to methodology:

> It is not the purpose of this manual . . . to discuss methods of teaching . . . but in the case of some selections mention is made of the most striking characteristics of the passage and these general comments may perhaps be some guide to the teacher in the preparation of his lesson. (p. iv)

Most often the notes contained in the handbook explained words in individual selections or figurative phrases occurring in the selections.

Canadian educators at this time were certainly aware of other methods of instruction. Millar, for example, in 1896 had advocated the unit approach as an instructional method and Forrester advocated the use of outlines. In relation to reading the superintendent of schools in Edmonton as early as 1912 had discussed the present transformation in the field of reading where reading was now viewed as a silent, meaningful process rather than an oral one (Phillips, 1957).

The methodological suggestions made by educators and the growth of teacher training courses along with the introduction of manuals would seem to indicate that methodology was growing in importance. Until 1922, however, neither reading theory nor reading methodology was given consideration by the authors of Canadian elementary reading series who seemed to have preferred to leave methodology to tradition and the common sense of the teacher. Reading was primarily viewed as oral pronunciation of words and reading methodology generally involved word pronunciation, memorization, recitation, and some questioning.

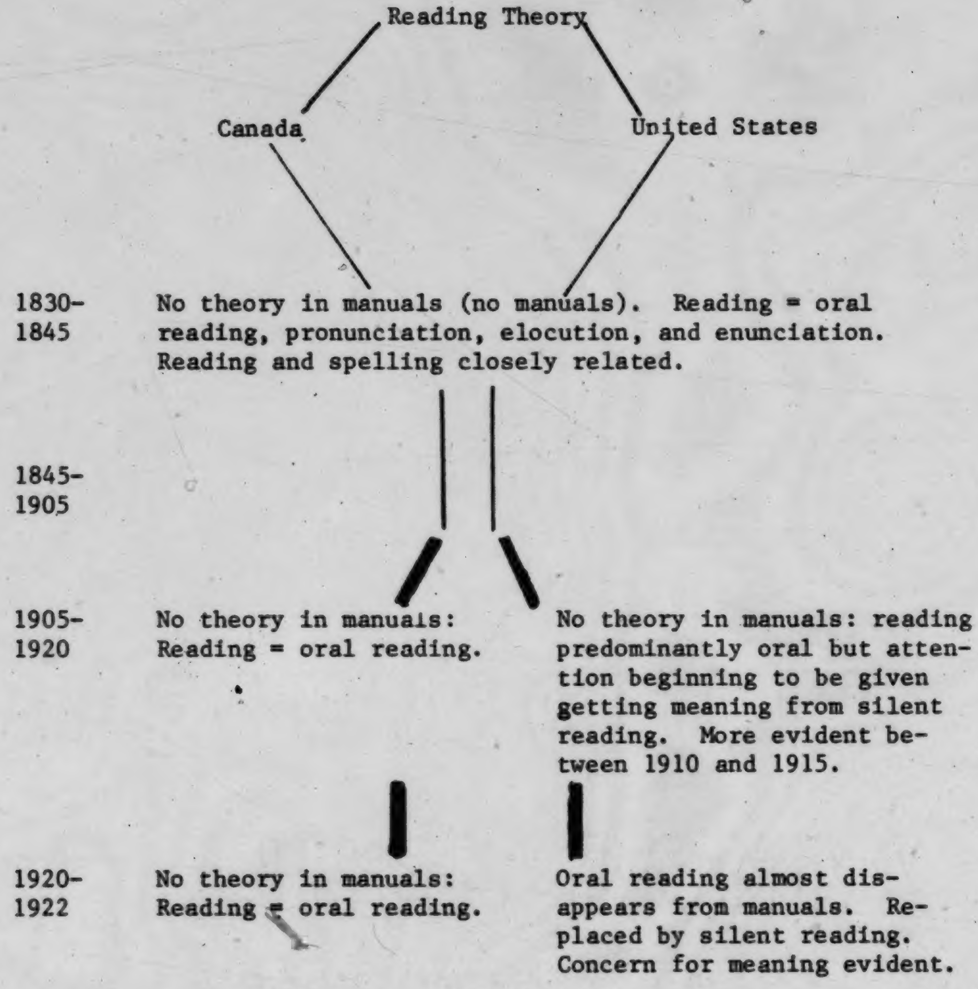
These events and developments were both similar to and different from those occurring in the United States during the same period. This is illustrated in Figure 4.1 which highlights the evolution of reading theory in Canadian and American reading series and Figure 4.2 which depicts the chronological development of reading methodology in Canada and the United States.

As shown in Figure 4.1 the view of reading as oral reading and pronunciation was shared by those in Canada and the United States until 1905. Silent reading, however, began to gain attention in American reader manuals before 1920 but had not appeared in Canadian reading series published up to 1922.

The information provided in Figure 4.2 indicates that after approximately 1905 reading methodology was treated more extensively in American reading series than in Canadian series. The little attention given to reading methodology in Canadian reading series would seem to suggest that content and not methodology was the primary concern in these series.

Content in Canadian Readers Adopted from 1846 to 1923

Murray's English Reader (1840) contained mostly moralistic selections affirming that its primary purpose was to inculcate in youth "some of the most important principles of piety and virtue" and to "improve the mind" (Preface). Selections dealt with such topics as 'no rank or possessions can make the guilty mind happy," the vanity



1830-1845 No theory in manuals (no manuals). Reading = oral reading, pronunciation, elocution, and enunciation. Reading and spelling closely related.

1845-1905

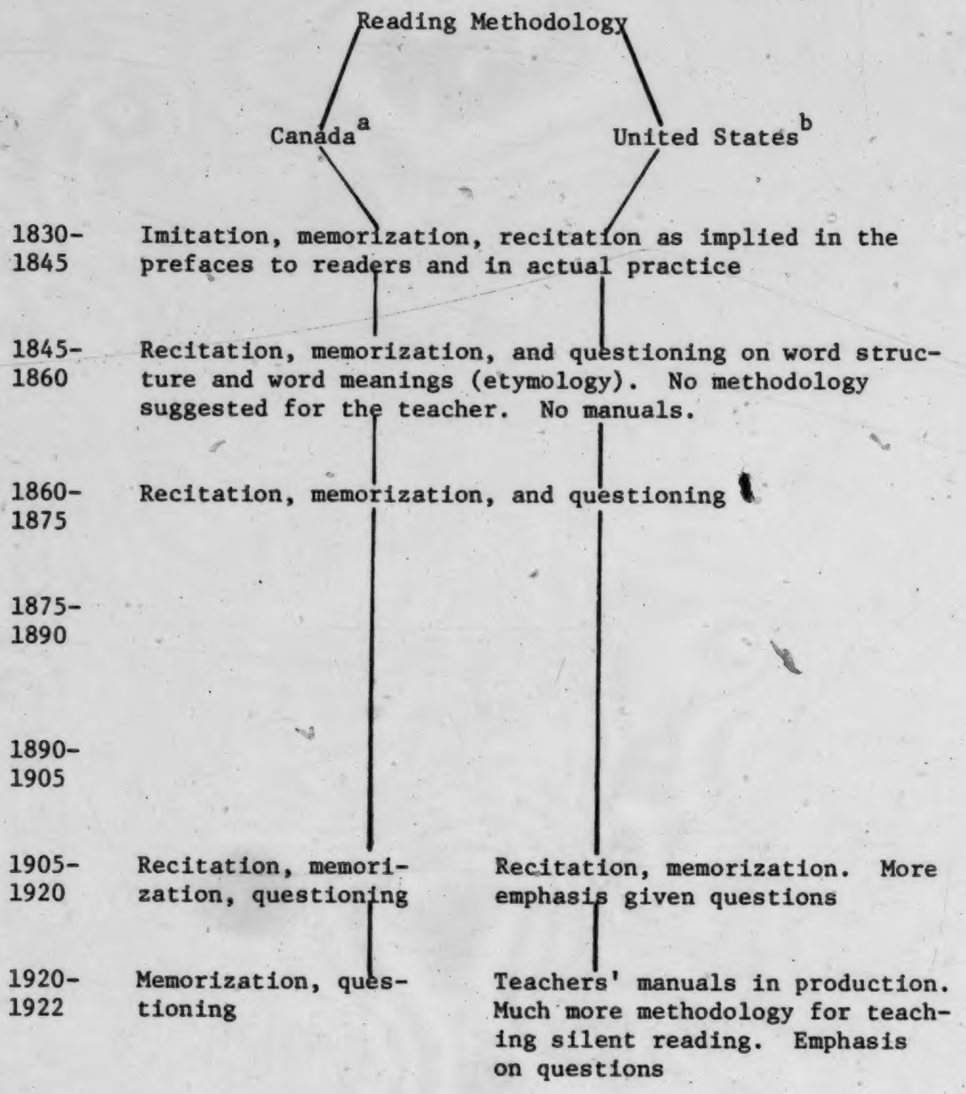
1905-1920 No theory in manuals: Reading = oral reading.

No theory in manuals: reading predominantly oral but attention beginning to be given getting meaning from silent reading. More evident between 1910 and 1915.

1920-1922 No theory in manuals: Reading = oral reading.

Oral reading almost disappears from manuals. Replaced by silent reading. Concern for meaning evident.

Figure 4.1. The chronological development of reading theory in Canadian and American reading series, 1830-1922.



Reading Methodology

	Canada[a]	United States[b]
1830-1845	Imitation, memorization, recitation as implied in the prefaces to readers and in actual practice	
1845-1860	Recitation, memorization, and questioning on word structure and word meanings (etymology). No methodology suggested for the teacher. No manuals.	
1860-1875	Recitation, memorization, and questioning	
1875-1890		
1890-1905		
1905-1920	Recitation, memorization, questioning	Recitation, memorization. More emphasis given questions
1920-1922	Memorization, questioning	Teachers' manuals in production. Much more methodology for teaching silent reading. Emphasis on questions

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[a] Based on reading series and Canadian educational sources.

[b] Based on Smith (1965), American Reading Instruction.

Figure 4.2 A chronological development of reading methodology in Canada and the United States, 1830-1922

of riches,' and 'the slavery of vice.' Some historical excerpts were included such as the "trial and execution of the Earl of Stafford," as well as literary selections but without doubt, the content served a didactic purpose. The majority of selections and authors were British.

Between 1846 and 1866 the Irish National Readers were the most widely used in Canada and their content consisted largely of factual information along with some poetry, literary selections, religious, geographical, and grammatical selections. From the Fourth Book, for example, selections constituted six sections: Natural History, Descriptive Geography, History of the Hebrew Nation, Political Economy, Miscellaneous, and then Poetical Pieces. As in the English Reader there was no Canadian content in the Irish Readers, the majority of selections being written by British authors.

From about 1868 to 1897 the Canadian Readers were in use, adopted first in Ontario and subsequently in other provinces. The title indicates a nationalistic orientation which, in fact, was a characteristic of reading series at this time. The Canadian Readers marked a shift to more patriotic content although a large percentage of the material in the readers was still informative and written by British authors. This growing sense of nationalism in the readers is understandable since in 1867 Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Upper and Lower Canada joined together under the British North American Act to form one Canada. The decade of the 1870's saw a development in national pride which provided just the sort of stimulus necessary for literary developments to take place. Around this time publication of several national magazines, Canadian novels, and newspapers came into being.

The Royal Readers and Ontario Readers in use during the 1880's included some informative content but also included historical, moral, and literary selections (Boyce, 1949). These readers marked a shift from a high emphasis on "useful knowledge" toward more of an emphasis on literary quality and interest appeal (Phillips, 1957). The Victorian Readers adopted from about 1898 to 1910 included more patriotic content and literary selections and more selections written by Canadian authors such as Thomas D'Arcy McGee and Pauline Johnson. The moral element, however, was still present although not as dominant as it had been in previous series.

Until the 1830's little attention had been paid to the difficulty of the content of readers. With the publication of the Cobb Readers in the United States around 1830 this changed. The Cobb Readers were probably the "first series of material definitely planned to facilitate continuous progress from the simple to the more difficult" (Carpenter, 1963, p. 75). After the publication of the Cobb Readers American textbook writers and compilers designed readers that were gradated in reading difficulty. The most popular of these American readers were the McGuffey Readers.

The McGuffey Readers were first published in 1836 and underwent several subsequent revisions until 1879. Each of the readers was designed for a particular grade thus contributing to the concept of the graded school. In Canada the Irish National Textbooks had been a uniform series of books but not until the publication of the Treasury and Highroads to Reading series around 1934 was there one reader per grade for grades four, five, and six.

The Canadian readers published in the 1880's and 1890's contained a larger percentage of literary and historical content than in past readers which was similar to developments in American reader content. According to Smith (1965) this was accentuated by the influence of Herbartianism which was evident in the United States in the 1890's. One of Herbart's most important principles was that character could be developed through the use of literature and history. Many American reading series were produced as reading/literature series at this time.

While there was some literary content in Canadian readers this was not as extensive as that in American readers and nowhere in prefaces did literature as an aim of reading instruction materialize. Although Herbartian principles were not evident in the elementary reading programs Canadian education was influenced by Herbartianism in the high school were history and literature were emphasized. Canadian educators were concerned that Canadian pupils understand and appreciate literature judging by the many articles devoted to this topic in the Canadian periodical, Education Weekly, published between January and June, 1885.

From about 1900 to 1915 American reading series included a greater variety of content which was comprised of myths, adventure stories, animal and nature selections, and historical passages. Canadian reading series, too, were characterized by a greater variety of content. Different editions of the Ontario Readers had continued from 1884 to 1922 and had contained a greater variety of content although not as much as American readers. Included in this content were stories of adventure, animal life, morals, legends, biographies, and selections of a historical and literary nature.

By 1915 American readers were changing again. Now more factual and practical content was included partly to accommodate the new silent reading procedures. This did not happen in Canada as the Ontario Readers was still the dominant reading series adopted by provincial departments of education, its content having changed little between 1900 and 1922.

Figure 4.3 highlights the similarities and differences between the content in Canadian and American readers published from approximately 1830 to 1922. Throughout this period, 1846 to 1923, Canadian readers had been characterized more by a British influence than an American influence. The different revisions of the Ontario Readers between 1884 to 1922 still retained a high percentage of British content although they had been originally published with the intent of having more Canadian content.

Content

	Canadian Readers	American Readers
1830-1845	Predominantly moralistic; some literary and poetical selections. Murray's English Reader very popular. British authors and content.	Predominantly moralistic and nationalistic. Some literary and historical. Murray's English Reader very popular.
1845-1860	Mostly factual and some moralistic. British authors and British content.	Wider range; some moralistic and mostly factual.
1860-1875	Still mostly factual with shift to more patriotic. Still predominantly British in content, some Canadian authors.	McGuffey's Readers popular. Its content divided between moral-religious, patriotic and literary. Other series retained a high percentage of informational content. American authors and mostly American content.
1875-1890	Wider variety including informational, historical-moral, and literary selections. Majority of authors British, some Canadian selections.	Literary and historical, American authors.
1890-1905	Much same variety, including information, moralistic, literary and poetry, biographies, adventures, legends-historical. Includes some Canadian selections but no real increase from 1860's.	Literary and historical, American authors.
1905-1922	No change as this was the same program, not yet revised.	Variety of content including myths, legends, historical, biographical and adventure selections. Around 1915, changing to more factual and informative related to the practical application in life, although some old tales and historical selections were retained. Mostly narrative, some expository. Majority authors American. Many new reading programs published based on children's interests.

Figure 4.3. Content in Canadian and American readers published between 1830 and 1922

Toward the end of the period more Canadian content was creeping into these readers. This, in fact, was related to the growing nationalistic feeling in Canada at this time. As observed by Stamp (1970), "by the beginning of the twentieth century this stirring of national feeling has its effect on the schools with the campaign for more Canadian texts rather than British or American texts . . ." (p. 306).

Relation between Theory, Content, and Methodology in Canadian Readers from 1846 to 1923

The omission of any discussion of reading or reading methodology in the readers used in Canadian schools between 1846 and 1923 immediately precludes any opportunity for comparing the consistency within each reading series between its stated view of reading and its actual suggested methodology for teaching reading comprehension, between each program's stated curriculum content and methodology or even between the reader content and methodology. However, the fact that all of the reading series to date conceived reading as oral reading and because the methodology of the day was primarily that of recitation and memorization, it would seem that there was a definite relationship between the current view of reading and reading methodology. The type of content in the readers published between 1846 and 1922 did lend itself to the methodology in use; factual and literary content could certainly be used for elocution, recitation, and memorization.

Relation between Characteristics of Canadian Reading Series and Developments in Reading and Other Fields

It appears that none of the developments in educational thinking or reading theory and research as discussed in the previous section found their way into the Canadian reading series as much as they had in American reading series especially in those published between 1915 and 1922. As stated earlier, no discussion of reading theory or methodology was contained in the Canadian reading series to 1922. However, from analyzing the prefaces of the series and other sources it is valid to conclude that until 1922 reading was viewed as oral reading.

This means that there was a lag between developments in reading theory and research and their translation into Canadian reading series. Canada had no choice but to rely on happenings in the United States at this time as that was where reading research was centered and where reading specialists were being trained. In Canada training programs had not as yet appeared which focussed on producing reading specialists. Internationally, the United States was "where it was at."

In Figure 4.4 the relation between developments in educational and curriculum thought, reading theory and research, and the content of Canadian reading series is represented pictorially. This shows more vividly the non-existence of influences in the reading series.

Summary

By the end of this period, reading authorities were stressing the importance of silent reading and the importance of

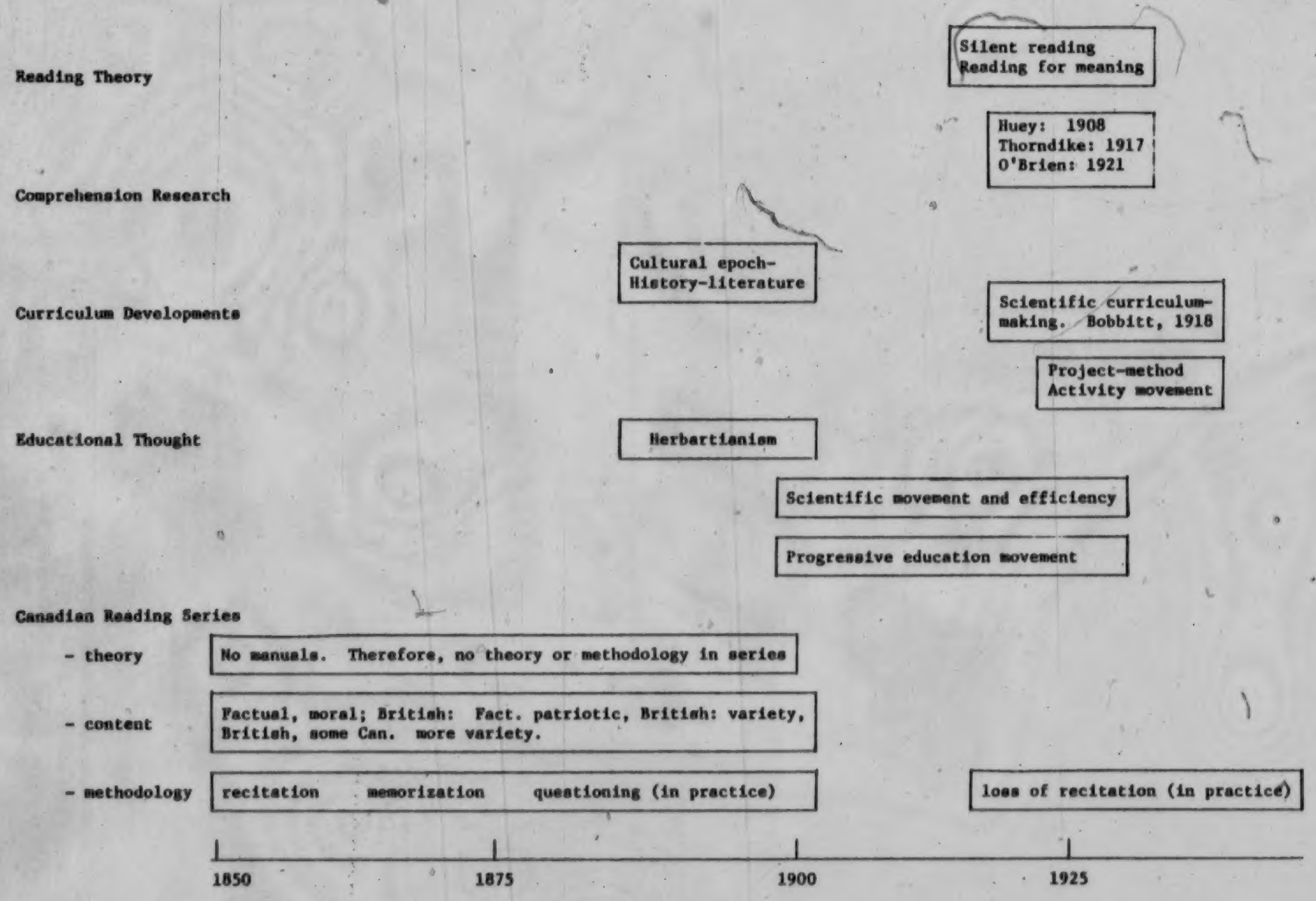
Reading Theory
Silent reading
Reading for meaning
Huey: 1908
Thorndike: 1917
O'Brien: 1921
Comprehension Research
Cultural epoch-
History-literature
Curriculum Developments
Scientific curriculum-making. Bobbitt, 1918
Project-method
Activity movement
Educational Thought
Herbartianism
Scientific movement and efficiency
Progressive education movement
Canadian Reading Series
- theory
No manuals. Therefore, no theory or methodology in series
- content
Factual, moral; British: Fact. patriotic, British: variety, British, some Can. more variety.
- methodology
recitation
memorization
questioning (in practice)
loss of recitation (in practice)
1850
1875
1900
1925

Figure 4.4. A pictorial representation highlighting particular interrelationships among selected factors.

obtaining meaning from print. Methodology in professional textbooks and reading series was concerned with silent reading techniques. Research had shown the importance of factors in reading comprehension. Among many were the importance of purpose, grasping the gist of the meaning in the content read, reasoning ability, knowledge of word meanings, the linguistic form of the material, and interest of the reader. Comprehension instruction was being advocated which would improve children's comprehension of the central idea of a passage, its supporting details, and the subtle meanings of print.

Influenced by the scientific and progressive education movements in education a division in philosophy regarding reading instruction began to emerge in the literature at this time. One group of educators advocated teaching children sequential reading skills in a systematic fashion and the other group believed that children should be permitted to carry out learning within the context of their experiences, their reading needs being met through problem-solving approaches and activities. This division was also becoming apparent within educational and curriculum thought.

Chapter 5

EMPHASIS ON SILENT READING: 1923-1949

In this period three reading series were examined in depth. The findings from this analysis were then related to developments in those fields forming the background to the study. An emphasis on silent reading as a thought-getting process marked the years from 1923 to 1949.

Major Curriculum Trends: 1923-1949

As in the preceding period both the scientific and progressive movements continued to exert their influence on educational thought, curriculum, and reading between 1923 and 1949.

The field of curriculum had received a mighty push with the publication of the work of Bobbitt (1918, 1924) and Charters (1909, 1922). In 1925 a second event took place which helped to further the development of curriculum as a field. This was the publication of the twenty-sixth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education entitled The Foundations of Curriculum-Making. Rugg, chairman of the yearbook committee, had intended that the yearbook's purpose would be to bring together the divergent and even antagonistic philosophies espoused by the educational leaders of the day. Certainly the entire range of educational thought in existence at that time was represented in the yearbook through the contributions of men like Bagley, Bobbitt, Counts, Bonser, Charters, Judd, Kilpatrick, and Rugg.

Within the yearbook a more organized approach to curriculum development was suggested which basically consisted of four steps: (1) determining objectives, (2) selecting the necessary activities and materials for meeting these objectives, (3) organizing the activities and materials, and (4) evaluation (Tyler, 1971). As Tyler (1971) pointed out this overall plan was very similar to that adopted later in 1936 for the eight year study.

Other characteristics of curriculum suggested in the yearbook were that the curriculum should be built around pupil needs, that activities relating to modern life and problem-solving should be used, and that there should be a carefully graded organization of problems and exercises used along with systematic practice. From this brief description of the view of curriculum found in the yearbook one can discern both the scientific and progressive orientations to education.

During the late twenties, then, several basic and sometimes conflicting points of view regarding education and curriculum were in force. The basic views existing at that time were, according to Schaefer (1971), that (1) education must be centered on the development of the child, (2) learning must be an active process for the learner, (3) education should be related to society's needs, (4) curricular decisions needed to be based on a scientific approach, (5) the school curriculum and classroom instruction should take into account individual differences, and (6) the role of the school was to develop an individual's potential to the fullest.

Based on his study of historical developments in American education Cremin (1961) believed that although differing views about the role of education and schooling were indeed present at that time "there was an undeniable drift of the argument in the direction of expansion, election, activity, and utility in the curriculum" (p. 211). Certainly by the 1930's the ideas and principles of progressive education were widely known and were having an impact on educational thought. As Tanner and Tanner (1975) have observed:

> By 1933, the terms 'activity' movement, 'activity' program, and 'activity' curriculum had become the commonplace in pedagogical parlance. Used freely and sometimes interchangeably with these terms were units, unit of work, central theme, and center of interest. The terms problem and project had gained currency in the first two decades of the twentieth century. (p. 253)

Cremin (1961) credited Kilpatrick for having contributed largely to the translation of progressive principles into classroom methodology. Kilpatrick had continued to expound his ideas of the project method, child-centered instruction, purposeful activity, and the need to develop children's thinking from his position as Chair at Teachers College. For a number of years Kilpatrick held this position and was thus able to disseminate a "particular version of progressive education that still remains the dominant image of the movement within the American teaching profession" (Cremin, 1961, p. 220).

There were, however, voices of dissent. Bode (1927), in particular, expressed his criticisms of progressivism maintaining, for example, that no one general method could incorporate all the findings of the new psychology and that methods and procedures would have to vary in terms of the content and the children to be taught.

Throughout these early decades of the twentieth century scientific work in psychology had continued. As mentioned earlier, Thorndike's work had been extremely influential in this regard. In particular, two elements of Thorndike's psychology became synthesized into what were, at this time, the formative theoretical roots of the curriculum field. These were his laws of learning, primarily the law of effect, and his theory of identical elements which helped to provide curriculum with the "behavioristic, psychological orientation that has dominated the field since its beginning" (Franklin, 1976, p. 300). Thorndike's law of effect defined learning as the connections between external stimuli in the environment. Learning occurred when these connections between a stimulus and a response became automatic. From his research Thorndike had concluded that training in one mental function failed to improve one's performance in another, that there were no general abilities which training could improve but rather that mental functions were of a specific nature which could be improved only through training the particular skills that comprised a given mental function (Thorndike and Woodworth, 1901).

Judd, Buswell, and Gates all continued to carry out psychological research on aspects related to human development and measurement. Counts, trained under Judd, also carried out educational research around this time as did many other educators. Thus there was a great deal of scientific research activity and so along with progressivism a pungent scientific flavour permeated the educational scene.

This scientific flavour colored, for example, the thirty-third yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education which was devoted entirely to the "Activity Movement." Members of that yearbook committee included Gates, Gray, and Kilpatrick with Bode, Bagley, Dewey, and Freeman contributing much assistance. Mossman, chairman of the committee, noted that because of the rapid growth of the activity movement the time for its study was at hand. Mossman (1934) stated:

> This trend toward an activity movement in America has grown to proportions of some moment. . . . Criticisms of the movement have become prevalent. The soundness of underlying theories is being questioned. . . . Some things are being done in the name of "activity" that are of doubtful educative value, and are causing some persons to wonder whether the movement may not be merely a fad. (pp. 2-3)

By the middle 1930's, then, the activity-centered approach to teaching and learning growing out of the progressive movement was not only a force in American education but also the cause of much concern and even criticism. How much was common to the activity movement and the progressive education movement, however, is difficult to state. This, in fact, represented one of the areas of confusion facing the yearbook committee who finally concluded that "some overlapping does exist, as is evident in looking at lists of proponents of the two movements" (Mossman, 1934, p. 4).

Two other major problems confronting the committee were the varying educational philosophies of the members and confusion over the existing terminology. Criticism of the activity movement was prevalent in the thirty-third yearbook. In Bagley's view the whole progressive movement should have been "a supplement to a program of systematic and sequential learning" (Bagley, 1934, p. 77). Bagley (1934) criticized its underlying theory as

> perilous because it deliberately belittles the importance and significance of that part of the social heritage which, among all of the factors that separate civilized man from Homo Neanderthalensis, is at once the most precious and the most difficult for each generation to acquire--the heritage, namely, of knowledge, skill, ideals and standards. (p. 78)

In chapter eight of the same yearbook Gray (1934) identified controversial issues related to the activity movement such as "What kinds of elements should be included in the curriculum?" Gray noted the existence of the varied terms--activities, experiences, units, projects, problems, enterprises, centers of interest used in the literature to describe such elements and recommended if there was a distinguishing constituent element it needed to be identified and defined, or if not, that fact should be recognized. A second controversial issue was related to the nature of a unit was it to be a section of subject matter within a given field, or was it a means of developing a phase of human living in which the pupil was to use more or less content? An issue closely related to this was, "shall the curriculum consist entirely or only in part, of activities?" Gray (1934) pointed out the following

> Some proponents of the activity curriculum conceive it as made up of various kinds, including specific subject matter units as well as so-called activities. Others maintain that the curriculum should be organized entirely on an activity basis. (p. 172)

Gray (1934), while generally praising the progressive and activity movements for their overall contributions, criticized their lack of a clear underlying theory and maintained that before the activity movement could be thoroughly accepted in educational theory and practice it needed to "establish the validity of its assumptions and determine objectively the efficiency of its content and methods" (p. 193).

Other controversial issues identified by Gray were related to the nature of the learner, the basis of the selection of curriculum content, the organization of curriculum content, the method of learning, and the teacher's role.

These statements by Gray and Bagley reflect the scientific mode of thinking so characteristic of the time.

In the thirty-third yearbook as well, Gates (1934), one of Thorndike's students and a leading figure in reading at the time, expressed his belief that

> the really essential information and skills can and should be so organized as an intrinsic component of the activity program so as to enable the pupil to acquire them better than ever before without adding to or interfering with, but on the contrary, genuinely fostering, the best types of the activity organization. (p. 189)

Gates' point of view seemed to represent almost a third position, an integration of the systematic planning of curriculum and sequential development of content and skills with the progressive-centered approach. Gates also observed that while many textbooks were faulty, a criticism most often expressed by those in the progressive school, overcondemnation was not valid as new types of printed material adaptable to a wide range of individual differences which integrated aspects of the activity approach had not as yet been fully explored. Gates, in fact, went on to apply this view to both professional texts on reading and classroom instructional material. Gates' opinions also verify the existence of another characteristic of this time--the use of textbooks in the schools' curriculum.

Hand and French (1967) in their analysis of the present status of curriculum-making observed that the focus of curriculum in the 1930's was on the needs and interests of the child but that not all schools were following this progressive orientation due to existing conflicting thought concerning education. Certainly the scientific movement was a growing force in education around this time as illustrated by the fact that in 1938 the yearbook published by the National Society for the Study of Education was entitled The Scientific Movement in Education. The purpose of the yearbook was to provide an account of the methods used in and the results of systematic educational research that had been carried out at that time. Research in particular subject areas was reported where a variety of measurement and statistical techniques were described. In the yearbook criticism was again directed at progressive education. Tyler, for example, stated: "The newer trends, such as the activity program, creative learning, incidental learning, integration and use of larger life units, need such experimental evaluation in terms of their own objectives" (Tyler, 1938, p. 65). In the yearbook research on child development was also discussed which focussed on the child as a learner and summarized current knowledge about children's interests and individual differences.

Partly because of rising criticism, the diversity and conflict within the progressive organization itself and the growing influence of scientism the progressive education movement declined by the middle 1940's. However, an interest in child development and the relation of the developmental characteristics of children to curriculum development wereretained as a result of both the progressive and scientific endeavours. The thirty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education was devoted entirely to child development and the curriculum. Contributors to that yearbook included Washburne, Jersild, Strang, Gray, Horn, and McKee. In the introduction Whipple (1939), the editor, observed:

> The fitting of instructional items and activities to the developmental level of the child in such a way as to secure maximal educational effectiveness is certainly one of the most crucial problems in curriculum-making. (p. x)

Anderson, a psychologist, emphasized the need to match school tasks to the developmental level of the child and Washburne (1939) commented:

> We must know more than we now do about the experiences, knowledge, and concepts of the child at each level of development. We must learn how to measure at successive levels the child's capacity for adding to his experiences and interpreting them. (p. 3)

The preceding excerpts indicate a concern that the curriculum be more organized and efficient. In the forties this was the orientation of what was now a new generation of curriculummakers. Following World War II curriculum specialists advocated a planned sequenced curriculum that included a wide variety of experiences.

Taba (1945), writing in the forty-fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, advocated a broader curriculum to serve a wider range of needs in the present society. Her major criticism of present school programs was their lack of continuity. As she stated, "the program is a mosaic of separate units and not a patterned, continuous design" (Taba, 1945, p. 97). Her approach to curriculum development involved the selection of learning experiences based on the needs and interests of the learner. These learning experiences were to be organized in a sequential manner as was the subject matter. This, however, was to be meaningful for the student and include a wide variety of activities. The curriculum and learning experiences were to be planned in such a way that "they both require and help achieve the ability to understanding increasingly complex material, the ability to interpret increasingly difficult facts with increasing accuracy . . ." (Taba, 1945, p. 98). Taba proposed that planning specific units of study should involve first, surveying ideas and suggestions related to the needs of the students; second, formulating general statements of objectives; and third, selecting experiences for attaining these steps. In 1947 the first curriculum conference on curriculum theory was held at Teachers College, Columbia University. Its purpose was to improve curriculum theory and its leaders were such men as B. O. Smith, Tyler, and Herrick.

At that time there had been fifty years of scientific curriculum work (Tyler, 1975).

Very soon after the forty-fourth yearbook and first curriculum conference Tyler (1949) published the syllabus he used in his course on curriculum at the University of Chicago. Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction was a very popular publication with educators. In it Tyler advocated a systematic approach to curriculum development and proposed a four-part model which included as its parts the formulation of objectives, the selection of learning experiences, the organization of learning experiences,and evaluation.

As we leave this period, then, the scientific approach to curriculum-making is still strong while the progressive education movement has declined. Many educators believe that progressivism had died by the end of the forties but some like Cremin were more skeptical. In his preface to The Transformation of the School: Progressivism in American Education: 1876-1957 Cremin (1961) queried, "Is it [progressivism] quite as dead as its critics believe" (p. vii)?

Major Developments in Reading: 1923-1949

Reading as a field of its own also continued to emerge between 1923 and 1949. Research into reading had been carried out extensively during these years by men like Judd, Buswell, Gates, and Gray who reported the results of their studies in the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. In the twenty-fourth yearbook a National Committee on Reading appointed by the Society submitted its report on reading. This may well be the "most important single book about reading instruction published during this century" (Harris, 1964, p. 131). The yearbook committee included Gray, Leonard, Horn, Zirbes, Jenkins, Ballou, Wilson, and Hardy.

Many important principles regarding reading and reading instruction were presented by this committee. The following is a summary of their major recommendations:

1. That a broad conception of the aims of reading instruction needed to be based on a clear understanding of its wide significance in school and other life activities.
2. That vigorous emphasis was needed from the beginning on reading as a thought-getting process and the subordination of mechanics of reading to thoughtful interpretation.
3. That there should be a clear recognition of the vital contribution of wide experience to good interpretation, with special emphasis on prereading experiences and the temporary postponement, if necessary, of formal instruction in reading.
4. That provision for wide reading as an essential means of extending experience and of cultivating strong motives for and permanent interests in reading was necessary.
5. That there should be a significant increase in the amount and variety of reading materials and a corresponding improvement in their quality.
6. That a clear recognition of the fact that recreatory and work-type reading are vital in a well-balanced program of instruction was needed.
7. That there should be provision for the systematic development and independent use of specific reading and study habits in all school acts.
8. That there should be an emphasis on the enjoyment of literature as a means of fuller living, rather than analysis and detailed study technique.

9. That there be implemented new types of organization and procedures in classes made necessary by the adoption of broader aims of reading.
10. That adequate provision should be made for differences in individual capacities, needs, and tastes.
11. That there be the continuous study of progress toward gaining the essential objectives of reading; namely, wide experience, strong motives for, permanent interests in reading, and effective habits and skills.

Most of these recommendations were fairly harmonious with the thinking of progressive educators regarding reading with the possible exception of number seven. The question of systematic development was still a major issue. As we saw in the previous section both Bagley and Gray had criticized progressive education for its unsystematic approach. The progressive education movement, however, did affect the field of reading evidenced in the remaining objectives for reading instruction recommended in the twenty-fourth yearbook.

Based on the research to date Gray (1925) classified reading experiences into two categories: those which were "work-type" experiences--experiences associated with daily needs and "recreational" experiences--those experiences involving reading as a leisure time activity. This breakdown was similar to Bobbitt's (1924) analysis of life activities into those of "play" and "work" illustrating the interconnected network of ideas in both educational, curricular, and reading thought. The objectives for reading instruction outlined in the twenty-fourth yearbook were broader than those previously guiding reading instruction which had concentrated only upon mastery of mechanics and oral reading. The most important of the new objectives was that which emphasized the need to "extend the experiences of boys and girls, to stimulate their thinking powers and to elevate their tastes" (Gray, 1925, p. 9). The second major objective was the development of motives for and interest in reading, and the third was to develop the attitudes, habits, and skills essential to various types of reading activities. Gray (1925) went further and classified these essential habits, attitudes, and skills into four major categories: (1) those habits common to reading situations such as recognition of words, sentences, anticipation of ideas in sequence, recognition of typographical devices, (2) habits of intelligent interpretation, (3) effective oral reading, and (4) the skillful use of books and libraries. Within the category of intelligent interpretation Gray (1925) included the following reading skills:

1. Analyzing or selecting meanings
    - selecting important points and supporting details
    - finding answers to questions
    - finding materials relating to a given purpose
    - determining the essential conditions of a problem
2. Associating and organizing meanings
    - grasping the author's organization
    - associating what is read with previous experiences
    - preparing an organization of what has been read
3. Evaluating meanings
    - appraising the value or significance of statements
    - comparing facts read with items of information from other sources
    - weighing evidence presented
    - interpreting critically
4. Retaining meanings
    - reproducing for others
    - use in variety of ways (p. 12)

In making these statements Gray (1925) relied on the results of several studies which had shown that children and adults read for a variety of purposes (Gray, 1919, 1924); that changes in purposes of reading and in the kinds of material read were accompanied by radical changes in the habits employed in reading (Judd and Buswell, 1922); and that of more than 900 adults surveyed "fewer than five percent read aloud" (Gray, 1924, p. 248).

The twenty-fourth yearbook also included a chapter written by Leonard on the "Relation between Reading and Literature" which he wrote in order "to present the need for a portion of the school day to be devoted entirely to recreational as distinguished from work-type reading" (Leonard, 1925, p. 141). Leonard used Bobbitt as additional support for his thesis. Leonard (1922) had previously written one of the few professional books of the time on reading and literature, Essential Principles of Teaching Reading and Literature, and was probably partly responsible for the attention which was given the place of literature in reading instruction. Horn, in chapter eight of the same yearbook, suggested the need for using a wide range of literary selections in the reading program and children's interests and abilities as a basis for pedagogy. Horn (1925) observed, "studies of such interests and abilities are now under way, but with a single exception the results are not available for publication in this yearbook" (p. 172).

In the thirty-sixth yearbook of the Society Gray (1937) remarked, "progressive developments have already affected the content and methods of reading in various ways and should exert an even greater influence during the next decade" (p. 11). Developments in reading identified by Gray as having been affected by progressivism were the concept of continuous growth, role of experiences, emphasis on child's interests and needs, and the need for curriculum to conform to the principle of social utility.

This yearbook emphasized the social need and significance of reading and the yearbook committee (1937) suggested that the objectives of reading instruction were:

(1) to extend, and enrich experiences
(2) promote social understanding and elevate tastes
(3) stimulate broad reading interests
(4) cultivate appreciation
(5) develop stable and alert pupils
(6) to continue to grow in all directions. (p. 3)

Again, as in 1925, Gray suggested that the basic types of reading were work-type--for daily, practical purposes, and recreational--for enjoyment and leisure. These objectives carry traces of the progressive philosophy but a scientific coloring also comes through somewhat forcefully in the thirty-seventh yearbook in such statements by Gray (1937) as:

> Until further evidence develops, the Yearbook Committee recommends the use of specific periods for carefully planned guidance in reading throughout the elementary school, secondary school, and college periods . . . As here conceived, the major purposes of guidance are to ensure initial right learnings, to promote the sequential development of basic reading habits, to increase efficiency in appreciation. (p. 19)

Goodykoontz, from the United States Office of Education, contributed a chapter to this yearbook. In "The Place of Reading in the

Curriculum" Goodykoontz, while recognizing the importance of pupil growth, experiences, relation of school to life and the desirability of providing many strategies for learning which she felt characterized the present day curriculum, also reiterated Gray's point of view. Goodykoontz (1937) stated:

> Of major importance is the fact that motives and opportunities for reading arise for the most part out of activities and experiences encountered in the various curricular fields. . . . Underlying the effective use of reading in these various fields, however, is the need for the initial development of, and continuous emphasis upon, certain basic or common reading attitudes and habits essential in all reading activities. (pp. 44-45)

Traces of both scientism and progressivism were also evident in the writings of reading educators in the same period.

Stone (1937) noted that a central idea in modern educational theory was that of growth through experiences and tried to incorporate the development of reading interests into his plan for reading instruction while suggesting systematic exercises for developing essential reading skills. Witty (1939) in Reading and the Educative Process observed

> Since 1920 significant and far-reaching changes have taken place in education. These changes have affected profoundly the basic aims and purposes of instruction in reading as well as in other subject matter areas. Modern education is concerned primarily with the provision and maintenance of classroom situations which engender wholesome growth, according to the varied needs of children. . . . Hence the primary aim in reading instruction has been altered. No longer is it the development of effective habits and skills; instead, major emphasis is accorded reading for meaning. (p. 111)

Witty (1939) emphasized the importance of developing children's reading interests and integrating language arts with reading maintaining that "the objective for instruction becomes primarily a concern for preserving personal integrity and clarifying social value" (p. 309), and recommended that a discriminate analysis of reading needed to be carried out in order to isolate factors affecting reading efficiency. In 1940 Gray defined reading as a "form of experience which contributed to the intellectual and emotional growth of the individual" (p. 11) and stressed that

> If reading is to achieve its highest purpose, it must relate to life as the foundation, guide, consummation of activity and, in turn, must itself be guided and interpreted by the many other important agencies of education. (p. 11)

In the report of the Annual Reading Conference held in Chicago in 1942 Taba referred to Tyler's eight-year study as her basis for suggesting the importance of having a clear statement of objectives and further analysis of specific behaviors for the planning of any curricular experiences. In the same year Broom, Emig, and Steubner's book, Effective Reading Instruction, had references to need for developing children's reading interests and for carefully planning the curriculum and instruction in order to achieve efficient reading. Thus we see that developments in educational thought and curriculum colored developments in the field of reading.

Throughout these years silent reading received attention in the literature but oral reading was not neglected as it had been between 1915 to 1925. As time went on varying conceptions about reading sprang to life.

Reading as Thinking

In the objectives for reading instruction enumerated by the Committee on Reading in the twenty-fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, the emphasis had been directed toward reading as a silent thought-getting process. This view of reading continued to develop between the years of 1925 and 1949.

More and more reading came to be conceived as a thinking process possibly affected by the thirty-sixth yearbook of the Society, The Teaching of Reading (1937). In this yearbook the yearbook committee (1937) chaired by Gray approved the following definition of reading which was broader than ever before:

> A third definition implies that reading is a much more inclusive process than either of the preceding. It assumes that the reader not only recognizes the essential facts or ideas presented, but also reflects on their significance, evaluates them critically, discovers relationships between them and clarifies his understanding of the ideas apprehended. In reading for a particular purpose, such as to determine the relative merit of the views presented by two authors, the reader may select and organize pertinent facts as he reads and may weigh values carefully. . . .
>
> The Yearbook Committee believes that any conception of reading that fails to include reflection, critical evaluation, and the clarification of meaning is inadequate. It recognizes that this very broad use of the term implies that reading includes much that psychologists and educators have commonly called thinking. The Committee does not object if anyone wishes to make a distinction between securing ideas on the one hand and using them in thinking on the other. It takes the position, however, that since efficient readers do think about what they read while they are reading it, the teacher should provide needed stimulus and guidance both in securing ideas from the page and in dealing reflectively with them.

> The implications of the foregoing discussion are quite clear. During the next decade, teachers should increase their efforts to guide pupils in the deliberate study of the meaning and significance of what they read. Related concepts, experiences, and principles should be recalled and the facts apprehended should be interpreted in the light of them. As Pyle has aptly pointed out, it is not what is presented to the child that promotes growth but rather the reaction that he makes to what is presented. It follows that, beginning in the earliest grades, there should be much clear thinking and weighing of values during the act of reading as well as subsequent to it. . . . But it is not sufficient that pupils merely recognize the words of a passage and comprehend and interpret their meaning. If they are aided through reading in acquiring adequate power of self-direction and ability to solve personal and social problems, they must learn to apply successfully the ideas gained from the printed page. (pp. 26-27)

All through this period professional writers acknowledged this psychological aspect of reading and the importance of comprehension to the understanding of what was read (Betts, 1946; Gates, 1947; Russell, 1949). These two terms 'comprehension' and 'interpretation' tended to be used both interchangeably and separately to represent two distinct aspects of 'reading for meaning'. McKee (1948) defined comprehension as meaning "merely the understanding or interpretation of meaning of what is read" (p. 94) while Hester (1948) described it as a "complex act. It is the ability to understand as one sees the page" (p. 194). In listing fundamental reading habits for the elementary grades Gray (1937) had one category for abilities related to comprehension and a separate category for skills related to interpretation.

Around 1940 the idea of levels of meaning began to creep into the literature. In that year a report on Reading in General

Education was published. In this report Gray (1940) described the levels of meaning in reading as

> the literal or sense meaning; the meaning implied by the author's mood, tone, and intention; and supplementary meanings that grow out of the specific purpose and unique experiences of the reader. (p. 21)

Gray suggested that reading involved the recognition of symbols and understanding of word meaning; the apprehension of meaning which included the three levels of meaning just mentioned; and reacting to and applying the ideas apprehended.

Another term which began to appear around this time was "critical reading." This was sparked by Gans' (1940) study of critical reading comprehension in the intermediate grades which lent further ammunition to the idea of different levels of meaning.

Before 1940 abilities related to comprehension, organization, retention, and evaluation aspects of reading had been present in the literature but these categories had not been well defined. Between 1935 and 1949 these abilities and divisions continued to be discussed and suggested as areas where students should have instruction. By 1949 these were much more specifically delineated although different authors included different skills in different categories. A brief overview of the kinds of skills and categories described by different reading authorities during this time is shown in Figure 5.1.

The growing number of lists of specific reading abilities caused Gates (1947) to comment:

> The literature of reading will reveal a variety of kinds of classes or types of reading comprehension. The lists seem to differ from author to author. . . . Reading is

GENERAL CATEGORIES

Stone (1937)	Abilities in silent work-type reading; Study skills
Gray (1937)	Comprehension; Interpretation; Study skills
Cole (1938)	Silent reading abilities
Hester (1948)	Comprehension; Organization; Remembering; Locating; Evaluation
Witty (1949)	Comprehension; Remembering; Association; Organization

SKILLS IN GENERAL CATEGORIES

Comprehension

McKee (1934)	Word meanings, anticipating meanings, sequence, verifying statements, drawing conclusions, following directions, main ideas, underlining, outlining, summarizing, ordering
Stone (1937)	Recognizing problems, locating data, retention, central ideas, predicting, reading between the lines
Gray (1937)	Sequence, main points, central theme, larger thought units, details, verifying accuracy of statements, drawing conclusions
Knight and Traxler (1937)	Sequence, main ideas, whole, details, fact versus fiction
Gates (1947)	Main ideas, details, directions, predicting, evaluating, summarizing, comparing, remembering
Hester (1948)	Relating, details, reading between the lines, drawing inferences, anticipating meaning, directions, visualizing images, sequential order, adjusting to different types of material
Bond (1949)	Recalling specific material, organizing, evaluating, interpreting, appreciating
Durrell (1949)	Simple comprehension - vocabulary, sentence structure, organization, attention; Recall; Higher mental processes - comparing, applying, associating, seeing relationships, judging suitability, determining fact from fiction, determining authors' bias
Witty (1949)	Directions, finding information, varying purposes, understanding words

Organization

McKee (1934)	Outlining, essential ideas, summarizing
Gray (1937)	Recognizing author's bias, purpose, organization, central topics, main points, supporting details, seeing relationships, sequence, summarizing, outlining, notetaking (see also Study Skills)
Witty (1949)	Sequence, outlining, summarizing

Remembering

Witty (1934)	Use of study aids - summarizing, outlining, purposes
Gray (1937)	Knowledge of efficient procedures in memory - relating old and new ideas, notetaking, outlining, wholes versus parts

Study Skills

Gray (1937)	Locating - alphabetical order, indexes, maps, library skills Selecting and Evaluating - relevant versus irrelevant, appropriateness, validity, fact versus opinion Problem-solving - suspending judgment, support for conclusions

Figure 5.1. Reading skills and categories delineated by reading authorities between 1923 and 1949.

> thinking and one can read in as many ways and for as many purposes as one can think. (p. 360)

Gates (1947) went on to suggest his own grouping of "most of the important ones" (p. 360) which included reading to get the main idea, details, noting and remembering directions, predicting, evaluating, reproducing in a summary form,and comparing.

In the forty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (N.S.S.E.)was the following concept of reading.

> It is essentially a thoughtful process. . . . It should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes. It can and should embrace all types of thinking, evaluating, judging, imagining, reasoning, and problem-solving. (p. 5)

The committee emphasized, however, that reading also involved emotional processes, that reading needed to be based on a sound theory of curriculum organization, that reading should be integrated with the other language arts, and that reading should be taught in relation to a child's development.

A year later another yearbook on reading appeared wherein Durrell (1949) defined reading as "a process of interpreting symbols, each symbol being drawn from an image, idea, emotion, or experience of the writer" (p. 192). Durrell suggested that differences in the background and mental processes of readers, improper word perception, mistaken word meaning, strange nuances in sentence structure, difficulties in making expected implications, or in applying critical standards were factors which interfered with interpretation of meaning from print. However, he noted that "despite these limitations there is a sufficiently high transfer of ideas and emotions from writer to reader" (Durrell, 1947, p. 194).

In 1949, too, one of the most widely acclaimed professional books on reading was published. Children Learn to Read written by David Russell, a Canadian who had gone to the United States, represented perhaps another milestone in the field of reading. Russell tried to integrate ideas from both the current theory and research in reading and in other fields in order to set forth a comprehensive context for reading and a reading program. The nature of the reading act--its theoretical underpinnings--was discussed by Russell (1949) who defined reading as

> . . . a subtle and complex act. It involves, more or less simultaneously, the following: sensation of light rays on the retina of the eye reaching the brain, perception of separate words and phrases, the functioning of the eye muscles with exact controls, immediate memory for what has just been read, remote memories based on the reader's experience, interest in the content read, and organization of the material so that it can be used in some way. These various features operate more or less concurrently, but they can be analyzed into at least four successive stages: sensation, perception, comprehension, and utilization. (p. 74)

Even though Russell stressed the simultaneous nature of the reading process it is evident in the above that the idea of reading as a 'successive' activity is emphasized more. In many ways Russell's description of reading shows the influence of Gray's writings which had been so dominant to this time.

Russell (1949) observed that many writers were describing comprehension as being largely a central process, or an activity of the brain closely related to intelligence and mental maturity but went on to state that in his opinion, "It is still true, however, that intelligence, or mental maturity is only one factor in comprehension" (p. 80). Russell (1949) defined levels of comprehension as:

> The simplest level is very close to perception. It is an identification of the symbol or idea in its primary, literary sense. Somewhat deeper comprehension involves memory: the idea is compared and associated with similar ideas. Out of some relating and classifying activities the child goes on to generalize. . . . Finally, comprehension of a statement . . . can be on the level of interpretation and judgment. (p. 80)

Thus comprehension involved both type and level of comprehension in Russell's philosophy. Type referred to the development of a particular ability such as reading for details or organizing a selection into its main and subordinate facts.

For the intermediate grades Russell suggested that many different comprehension abilities needed to be developed. These included skimming, grasping the general idea or significance of a selection, understanding sequence, predicting, organizing material into main ideas and dependent ideas under each of these, following directions, generalizing,and critical reading to appraise the value of ideas presented.

Research on reading had continued throughout the 1930's and 1940's and had aided professional writers such as Russell in formulating conceptions of the reading act and listings of comprehension abilities demanded of the reader when reading.

Comprehension Research

In the thirties several studies of the reader were carried out which contributed knowledge about the difficulties readers were experiencing and the skills good readers used when reading.

One such study was that carried out by McAllister (1930) who identified that the main difficulties presented to the seventh and eighth grade students by history, science, and mathematics were an inability to recognize relations and a lack of knowledge of the subject matter. This was similar to the findings reported by Dewey (1935) who found that eighth graders lacked sufficient background and vocabulary for understanding and interpreting historical selections.

Touton and Berry (1931) analyzed 20,000 errors in comprehension made by 738 college entrants and classified the errors as (1) inability to understand fully the question to be answered, (2) inability to isolate the elements of an involved statement read in context, (3) inability to associate the related elements of the context, (4) failure to grasp or retain ideas essential to the understanding of additional concepts, (5) failure to see the setting of the context as a whole, and (6) irrelevant answers of various types.

A search of the literature was carried out by Gray and Holmes (1938) who reported that meaning vocabulary, a child's capacity to learn, environment, interests, and instruction seemed to be the most often reported factors related to progress in reading.

As a result of her study Gans (1940) concluded that reading should be developed as a complex organization of higher thought processes. Those cognitive processes she believed to be operating when reading and comprehending were those of imagining, evaluating, reasoning, and problem-solving.

Much of the research used by Gray in formulating his model of reading in 1960 had been the results of factor-analytic studies such as that of Langsam (1941) who identified four factors in reading ability: (1) a verbal factor relating to ideas and meanings of words, (2) a perceptual factor involved in rapid observation and selection of correct words from other words, (3) a word factor of fluency, and (4) seeing relationships.

Perhaps the most important of these was Davis' study. Davis (1941) first surveyed the literature to identify those comprehension skills commonly regarded by reading specialists to be crucial in reading. He then constructed a test to measure these and applied factor-analysis to the results. He identified several components of reading comprehension: (1) a knowledge of word meanings, (2) the ability to follow the organization of a passage and to identify the antecedents and references in it, (3) the ability to select the main point, (4) the ability to answer questions that are specifically answered in the passage, (5) the ability to answer questions that are answered in the passage but not in the words in which the questions are asked, (6) the ability to draw inferences from a passage about its contents, (7) the ability to determine a writer's purpose, intent and point of view, and (8) the ability to recognize literary devices used in a passage and to determine its mood and tone.

Harris (1946) defined behaviors involved in understanding literature which he then used in the construction of tests. He gave these tests to high school students and on the basis of the results concluded that the ability to comprehend was unitary with respect to the various behaviors included in the definition of comprehension.

The Madison Report, referred to by Gray in the forty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, had involved a survey of students' reading difficulties in content fields. This showed that a number of reading comprehension difficulties were experienced by students. These were difficulties in attaching appropriate time and place significance to events, following the historical order of events, interpreting facts presented in their appropriate time and place settings, following the author's line of reasoning in reaching conclusions, gathering relevant data in the study of a specific social problem, judging the validity of the facts, recognizing bias, and grasping the various aspects of a controversial issue.

By 1949, as a result of reading research, several factors had been found to be crucial to a reader's comprehension. These factors were: (1) Purpose-- almost every writer during the years between 1925 and 1949 had reiterated their belief that the reader's purpose colored his understanding and retention of information read and that studentsshould be guided to read for a wide variety of purposes (Gray, 1940; Hester, 1948; McKee, 1934; Stone, 1937). (2) Background experiences --the importance of background experiences to the message received by the reader during reading was recognized by the majority of writers as having a crucial role to play in comprehension (Gray, 1937, 1949; Goodykoontz, 1940; Hester, 1948; Russell, 1949); (3) Linguistic--by the late forties writers were paying attention to the effect of written language on reading comprehension. In the 1940 report on reading Gray discussed the effect of grammatical relationships, written language patterns, and the form and type of reading material on reading comprehension. By this time, too, the idea that different written patterns and content affected reading had come into being. The different organizational patterns of subject areas and their effect on reading comprehension was described in detail by Gray (1940). This concept was referred to as "reading in the content areas" and it appeared in the literature with increasing frequency during the thirties and forties.

Before the end of the period comprehension methodology for classroom reading instruction was being suggested by reading authorities.

Comprehension Methodology

One valuable report on instruction in comprehension was that by Goodykoontz (1930) who listed eighteen exercises to lead children from the location of answers to outlining and summarizing. This was an analytical approach which included topics of matching titles, or paragraph headings and finding key sentences: advanced steps included anticipating the content of a chapter, arranging ideas in order, classifying or grouping ideas, locating main points and subordinate points, and outlining.

McKee (1934) in discussing methods and materials to use in teaching work-type study skills noted:

> Ideally the selection of methods and materials should be determined by findings of experimental research. . . . The results of such research mature too slowly, however, and the school cannot wait. Consequently, most methods and materials must be chosen by sound educational experience and critical judgment. (p. 74)

As an approach to this instruction McKee (1934) advocated: "This means that most of the teaching will utilize drill exercises. . . . Many of the abilities to be taught in connection with comprehension must be approached in a similar manner" (p. 75). An example of a typical exercise recommended by McKee and other reading authorities at this time is presented in Appendix . McKee suggested that when teaching literature the approach should not be analytical or critical and that a background of experience should be developed to aid the development of essential concepts. Here instructional strategies such as using book reports, creative writing, and oral reading were given.

Durrell (1949) felt that a balanced program in reading comprehension would utilize the 'related-activity' approach which recognizes that meaning rests upon experience, and the 'reading-skills' approach which gives the child systematic practice in the basic skills needed for effective reading. He pointed out that since imagery rests on experience the use of pictures, slides, motion pictures, drama and discussion would be helpful instructional techniques to use along with questions which did not specifically relate to the content of the story. In relation to informational ideas Durrell suggested instruction should use aids such as pictures, maps, charts, field trips and unit plans. Although Durrell noted the need to use two approaches his discussion focussed on the systematic teaching of skills.

In 1949 McKee reiterated the desirability of a skills approach to instruction in comprehension. Instruction should be designed to develop pupils' understanding of word meanings, using context, interpreting figures of speech, punctuation, relations between parts of sentences, distinguishing emotive from informative language, and establishing relations between sentences of a paragraph. Instruction in the content areas, he felt, should present few topics, use supporting materials, discussion, questions, and instruction in basic reading skills.

Most of the suggestions provided for instruction found in the literature at this time are reflected in the above statements by Durrell and McKee. Generally, questions, discussion, and the use of illustrative aids comprised the procedures given by professional writers for improving a child's comprehension.

Summary

Broader objectives for reading instruction emerged between 1925 and 1949. Reading experiences were divided into work-type and recreational and reading as a meaningful, thoughtful process came more and more into being. At the close of the period the concepts of levels of comprehension and categories of reading skills had evolved. Reading and reading comprehension were viewed in two ways: as being comprised of several abilities and as a unitary process. Critical reading was a term entering the literature and attention was directed toward what is known as "reading in the content areas."

Although the concept of reading as a cognitive and thought-getting process dominated the literature between 1925 and 1949 the literature also reveals that reading began to be conceived as a sociological process, as being one aspect of the language arts (McKee, 1934; Witty, 1939, 1949; Betts, 1946), as having its underpinnings in knowledge of child development (Gray, 1937; Gates, 1947), as being an aid to learning, and as being interrelated with both language and thinking (Gray, 1940; Hester, 1948).

As we have seen in the earlier section on developments in reading aspects of educational thought, curriculum,and psychology had an impact on the field of reading. Up until this time, however, little research was carried out in relation to comprehension methodology although authorities did suggest procedures for classroom reading comprehension instruction. For the most part these authors relied on the discussion in the literature, common sense and/or experience for providing ideas to teachers for teaching reading comprehension.

Steadily but surely throughout the period categories of reading skills became delineated and skills particular to reading comprehension became defined.

Developments in Canadian Educational History: 1923-1949

In Canada the influence of the progressive movement toward the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century was being felt.

In 1924 British Columbia appointed a commission to survey the schools. Dr. J. H. Putnam and Dr. G. M. Weir, chairmen of the commission, published their report in 1925 advocating progressive ideas for the educational system. From perusing Canadian periodicals such as the Alberta Teachers Magazine during the early twenties the influence of progressivism can be quickly seen. Articles deal with the practical emphasis in education at that time and the interest and use of progressive ideas such as play, nature study, manual training, and music (Carpenter, 1921; Herbart, 1920; Hill, 1921).

Patterson, a Canadian educator, studied the impact of progressivism on education in Alberta and concluded that "the progressive education movement of the United States had an important influence on its Alberta counterparts" (Patterson, 1968, p. 2). In the 1930's members of the American Progressive Education Association Executive attended meetings of Alberta's teachers. By 1935 the Educational Society of Edmonton ordered key books by American Progressive educators such as Rugg and Kilpatrick (Patterson, 1968).

During the 1930's many significant educational changes occurred in Canadian provinces. Several provinces revised their curricula along progressive lines (Alberta, 1934, 1935; British Columbia, 1935, 1936; New Brunswick, 1939; Saskatchewan, 1934, 1935) and words such as "activities," "projects," and "enterprise" were common in the literature (Patterson, 1970).

It is difficult, however, to determine the exact extent of the progressive influence on Canadian education and quite incorrect to assume that Canadian schools completely changed their curriculum to "activities," "units," or "projects." As Patterson (1968) remarked in reference to Alberta, "The emphasis on mastery of subject matter retained an important place even past the time of the formal introduction of the new curriculum in 1936" (p. Thus in Canada, too, it seems that both the "traditional" and the "progressive" elements of curriculum were present. This may have been partly because both the scientific and progressive movements in American education had affected Canadian education.

Certainly the scientific orientation of American psychology permeated Canadian education. Several articles in Canadian educational journals during the twenties discussed measurement and testing, a direct characteristic of the child study movement and scientific developments in American psychology. Thorndike's ideas had influenced Canadian education through the ideas of Sandiford, a Canadian educator who had studied under Thorndike (Paton, 1958). The nature of this influence is described by Paton (1958):

> A strongly deterministic behavioral psychology as expounded by the late Peter Sandiford, was widely taught in our normal schools and colleges of education contemporaneously with an implicit confidence in the educational implications of British idealism which had no common ground whatsoever with the American pragmatism accepted by E. L. Thorndike and his many disciples such as Professor Sandiford himself. (p. 26)

During the 1940's the progressive education movement still influenced Canadian education with the enterprise approach to teaching probably being the most important of the innovations made in the name of progressivism (Lupul, 1969). The leading exponent of this method was Dr. Donalda Dickie, an Albertan educator who published The Enterprise in Theory and Practice (1941) wherein she described the essential principles of the enterprise.

Again the immediate question is did developments in American educational thought, curriculum,and reading affect the content of the Canadian elementary reading series adopted between 1923 and 1949?

Interrelation between Characteristics of the Reading Series and Developments in Reading and Other Fields

From this period three Canadian elementary reading series were selected for study: the Canadian Readers, the Treasury Readers, and Highroads to Reading. Between 1946 and 1950 another major Canadian reading series was published, Canadian Reading Development, as was a second edition of Highroads to Reading. As these were not completely printed until at least 1949 and were not adopted by Canadian departments of education before 1950 they are described in the next chapter which is concerned with the period , 1950-1974.

Reading Theory

A manual was printed to accompany the Canadian Readers published by W.J. Gage and T. Nelson in 1923 and adopted in certain Canadian provinces until approximately 1935. (Refer to Table 3.1 p. 38 for specific information regarding frequency and longevity of adoptions). Nowhere in the manual or readers, however, was there expressed a view of reading. Much like the Ontario Readers' Manual notes were given which explained terms, provided information about the author or suggested sources for the teacher to read. For example, in reference to "The Shoemaker and the Elves" the authors (1923) informed the teacher that this was " a tale by Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm. . . . The collection has been frequently translated into English" (p. 10), and the term "elves" as it was used in the story is explained as " ere their interest is kindly and beneficial. They are represented as excessively fond of cleanliness and industry in human beings" (p. 10).

Around 1932-1934 the Treasury Readers were published by Ryerson and Macmillan continuing as an adoption in certain Canadian provinces until 1949. Highroads to Reading published by W.J. Gage and T. Nelson in 1934 was adopted in Canadian provinces until 1949. With these two series came major changes.

A Teacher's Manual combining suggestions for the readers designed for grades four, five, and six was printed, Thus for the first time there was a reader for each of the elementary grades. Although workbooks were beginning to accompany the readers for the primary grades they were still scarce at the intermediate level. From the writer's research it would seem that they had not been published to accompany either of these series. These manuals did go much farther toward discussing a theory of reading, objectives of a reading program, and methodology for reading instruction that was concerned more with reading comprehension than was the case previously. Thus one would anticipate that the content in the manuals would illustrate the impact of developments that characterized the field of reading during this period.

In the Treasury Manual the Canadian authors, Wootton, Dilz, and Bremmer (1932) referred to several aims of their reading series:

> In the first place we must try to make it increasingly easy and pleasurable for the child to read. . . . This means a wide range of reading where there would be considerable silent, independent reading . . . much reading involves actual study of the material . . . stock-taking . . . extracting the essence of a selection--or the development of literary taste. [To develop this] specific lessons [are] designed to assist the child to grasp and comprehend what is read, to select essentials, to judge what is significant in thought and what is trivial and unworthy, to appreciate verbal melody, vivid imagery, and exalted character delineation . . . based on material worth this closer study. (pp. 4-6)

The major goals of this reading series were the development of literary appreciation, oral,and silent reading. The authors included oral reading although the tenor of the times was in favour of a great deal of emphasis on silent reading. Wootton, Dilz, and Bremmer (1932) suggested, "at the present time oral reading finds itself in some necessity of justifying its existence . . . it would be worthwhile, then, to consider wherein the value of this field of training . . . lies" (p. 20). The authors justified training in oral reading on the basis that it helped cultivate pleasing habits of speech, that it was an "aid to word appreciation of rhythm and word melodies," that it helped characters round out in "fuller imaginative realization," and "because it was needed at times in practical life situations" (Wootton, Dilz, and Bremmer, 1932, p. 21). Silent reading, however, was to receive the major emphasis in reading instruction; "oral reading will consume no more than 25% . . ." (Wootton, Dilz, and Bremmer, 1932, p. 180).

The objective of silent reading instruction was to train concentration, which included speed and comprehension, and organization which involved helping the reader to organize information he had gathered from his reading as well as helping him to grasp the organization of the text material which involved comprehension of the author's purpose. Also included was the establishment of study habits such as selecting central ideas and supporting details, outlining, skimming to locate specific information, use of the table of contents, index, dictionary, following directions, notetaking, summarizing, evaluating the author's statements, and visualizing what was read.

This indicates that comprehension was viewed by the authors as an important aspect of the reading process which is more fully supported in the following statement by Wootton, Dilz and Bremmer (1932).

> Reading is the interpretation of the printed page. It involves attaching meaning to the printed symbols, integrating the parts of the thought, and assimilating the significance of the whole. Reading, therefore, cannot be separated from thinking, and there can be no reading without comprehension. Facility in quick and accurate identification and pronunciation of word forms, while frequently regarded as reading, is merely a skill, a piece of mechanics, and though that skill is essential to all reading it does not in itself constitute the reading act. (p. 169)

Speed or rate was considered an important dimension of reading needed for developing effective and efficient readers. The authors emphasized that this training must be consistent with the purpose of the reader and not detract from comprehension. "Every good silent reader is able to read with reasonable speed and intelligent understanding" (Wootton, Dilz and Bremmer, 1932, p. 193).

It is interesting to note that comprehension 'skills' and 'study skills' are not really separated by the authors who include, for example, selecting central and supporting ideas within study habits. Instead, specific skills are suggested in relation to broader objectives of silent reading, oral reading, and literary appreciation. Of these, literary appreciation and cultivating pleasure in reading seem to be the important priorities of the program. This is illustrated when the authors stated that, "In the first place we must try to make it increasingly easy and pleasurable for the child to read" (Wootton, Dilz and Bremmer, 1932, p. 4).

Highroads to Reading, like the Treasury Readers, was accompanied by a teacher's manual. Both silent and oral reading were goals of the program as was the enjoyment of reading and the location of information. As stated by the authors (1935)

> The pupil who has mastered the mechanics of silent and oral reading, who has formed the reading habit and goes with enthusiasm to books for information and recreation, who has learned to consult books and whose literary standards have been set by communication with the best that has been written by the masters of all times, is well on the way to the achievement of a liberal education. . . . We read in order to share the experiences of the writer, to enter into the thought and feeling expressed by means of the symbols on the printed pages, and our success is measured by the speed and completeness with which this is accomplished. (p. 2)

The objectives listed for the intermediate levels of this series were:

1. To promote access to the many fields of thought, feeling, activity which lie beyond immediate exper-

> ience and which can be approached by means of a rich and varied programme of selected readings.
>
> 2. To develop strong motives for and permanent interests in worthwhile reading.
> 3. To develop skill in silent and in oral reading.
> 4. To cultivate literary taste and set up appropriate standards of good reading.
> 5. To provide for a "carry-over" of the attitudes, skills, and abilities learned in the reading instruction periods to a mastery of the other subjects of study and to general reading.
> 6. To lead pupils to realize that books are silent friends ever ready for pleasurable and profitable intercourse.
> 7. To teach the proper uses of books, magazines, the newspaper, the dictionary, and encyclopaedia, the reference library. (p. 5)

Although oral reading was included as an objective of the series silent reading received the greatest attention probably because as the authors argued it was a most necessary component of modern life given the increased print output, the need for intelligent participation in community affairs,and benefit of reading as a leisure time activity. Reading was viewed by the authors as a silent, thinking process: it was not they felt "mere word recognition and word naming, but the interpretation of living thought from the printed symbols" (p. 8). Speed, accuracy,and depth were judged to be the most important in comprehension. The development of these areas necessitated efficient practice in concentrated attention, accurate interpretation of symbols, accurate association of ideas expressed, recognition of important elements,and appraisal of the validity and value of statements.

Important to the development of reading comprehension were following directions; using the glossary, dictionary and encyclopedia; ability to organize; and the ability to select facts in relation to their worth. According to the authors (1934) understanding a paragraph was like solving a problem in mathematics--

> It consists in selecting the right elements of the situation and putting them together in the right relations, and also with the right amount of weight or influence or force for each. The mind is assailed by every word in the paragraph. It must select, repress, soften, emphasize, correlate, and organize, all under the influence of the right mental set or purpose or demand. (p. 11)

This is quoted by the author from Stone's professional book, Oral and Silent Reading but Stone, of course, had quoted directly from E.L. Thorndike, the original writer of this paragraph.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in the Field of Reading

No discussion of reading theory had appeared in Canadian reading series until 1934 at which time manuals accompanied the readers. Thus there was a lag of approximately twenty-five years between developments in reading theory and the effect of these developments in Canadian elementary reading series. However, many of the developments in reading theory between 1900 and 1925 described in the previous chapter could be discerned in the Treasury Reading Series and Highroads to Reading:

The concept of reading as a silent, thinking process was present in these series, a concept which had been evolving in the professional literature since the early 1900's and one which had been promoted in the twenty-fourth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. This same theoretical view of reading continued in the literature from

1925 to 1934 and even on through the next decades although it was emphasized most in the years between 1915 and 1925. Consequently, with respect to this characteristic the Treasury Reading Series and Highroads to Reading were at the same time behind, current with, and even ahead of events in reading theory. This was also true with respect to Thorndike's view of the reading process. Thorndike had described reading as a reasoning, problem-solving activity as early as 1917 but this did not emerge in the reading series until around 1934. Thorndike's view of reading was evident in the literature ever since but reading as a cognitive, problem-solving activity really wasn't emphasized in the literature until the 1960's. Thorndike had based his theory of reading on the results of his research which also illustrates how reading research affected the reading theory in the Canadian reading series published around 1934. It is possible, too, that the emphasis given the importance of purpose in Treasury and Highroads was due to Yoakum's (1921) research which had shown the effect of purpose or set on reading comprehension.

The authors of the Treasury and Highroads reading series considered comprehension to be most important and speed, organization, retention, study, and comprehension skills were noted. These were divisions of reading commonly found in the literature between 1924 and 1934. Also, the objectives of reading in both series were similar to those stated in the twenty-fourth yearbook of the

Many aspects of the reading theory in the Treasury and Highroads to Reading series, therefore, reflected developments in the reading field at that time which indicates that a major attempt was made to incorporate aspects of reading theory into these series. The series were not current for very long, however, as in 1937 another influential yearbook devoted to reading was published by the National Society for the Study of Education. Between 1935 and 1945 many other developments took place in reading which could not be reflected in the Treasury or Highroads series nor in any Canadian reading series until 1946 to 1950 at which time new series were published. Many of the developments occurring between 1935 and 1945, however, were reflected in American reading series for the simple reason that American reading series were published between 1934 and 1945. Figure 5.2 illustrates the theoretical underpinnings of Canadian and American elementary reading series published from approximately 1922 to 1940.

It should be pointed out that Smith (1965), who was the major source used for describing developments in American reading series discussed reading program changes from the early 1940's to about 1950 but her reference material came primarily from the Ginn Basic Readers, the Curriculum Foundation Series, and the Betts Readers which were published between 1943 and 1949.The developments in these American reading series will be discussed in the next period, 1950 to 1974, as they were most frequently in use at the beginning of this period.

Reading Theory

(Goals and Objectives)

	Canadian Reading Series	American Reading Series
	1922[a]- 1934	
1922	No reading theory, no objectives of reading in manuals. No manuals, only notes. Reading = oral reading.	Theory and objectives in manuals. Reading = silent reading. Importance of comprehension overshadowed literary appreciation
1930-1934	No reading theory in manuals. Reading = oral reading.	Broader goals for reading instruction included in manuals: - extending experiences - stimulating thinking - elevating tastes - developing essential habits, skills, attitudes Silent and oral reading considered important. Emphasis on silent reading and comprehension
	1934-1940	
	Manuals	
1934	Reading theory, objectives in manual. - Reading viewed predominantly as silent - Oral reading included as important objective of reading instruction - Reading as thoughtful process - Importance of comprehension discussed Beginning of delineation of reading skills	Classification of comprehension skills Division of work-type and recreational reading Even broader objectives Continued use of manuals

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[a] Dates are approximate

Figure 5.2. A comparison of reading theory in Canadian and American reading series published between 1922 and 1945

The information presented in Figure 5.2 shows that there were differences between the Canadian and American elementary reading series published between 1922 and 1946. Whereas in 1922 teachers' manuals accompanied American reading series and included a discussion of reading this did not take place in Canadian reading series until approximately 1934 when a manual was published to accompany the Treasury and Highroads readers. Only then could there even be any discussion of reading in Canadian reading series. Between 1922 and 1935 the twenty-fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education had been published. As noted previously, that yearbook had suggested three major objectives for reading instruction. These and other major principles were reflected in the American reading series published between 1922 and 1935. They were not reflected in Canadian reading series until 1934. Of course, there had been no new publication of Canadian reading series until that time - the Canadian Readers having continued as a major adoption from 1922 with very little revision. In the United States more reading series were published more often and as mentioned earlier could thus incorporate the concurrent developments in reading theory and research. The principles, for example, advocated in the thirty-sixth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. were translated into American reading series between 1935 and 1940 but were not integrated into Canadian series. Thus the picture which emerges is that principles related to reading were incorporated into American reading series approximately ten years before they were integrated within Canadian reading series.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in Other Fields

The presence of objectives and goals in the Treasury and Highroads to Reading series may have been influenced by the scientific movement in education which had gained great strength between 1900 and 1935. Traces of the progressive philosophy, also characteristic of the times, were present in the series in the emphasis given by the authors to developing children's interests and silent reading as a meaningful process.

The importance assigned to interest generally in these series may also have been partly due to the influence of developments taking place in the field of psychology. During the first quarter of the twentieth century there had been psychological studies of children and children's interests.

Certain aspects of the reading comprehension methodology in the Treasury and Highroads to Reading series provided additional evidence of the influence of developments in reading and other fields on Canadian reading series.

Reading Comprehension Methodology

There was no manual accompanying the Canadian Readers (1923) which, as stated previously, had two readers for three grades. As would be expected, therefore, no methodology was suggested in this series for teaching reading in the classroom. As with the Ontario Readers, the series published immediately before the Canadian Readers, no questions, directives, activities, purposes, or skill exercises could be found in the Canadian Readers reading series. Consequently, no comparison between the program's stated curriculum content and suggested reading comprehension methodology could be made.

The lack of emphasis on methodology implies that the methodology was left to the teacher and tradition of the day which was characterized by memorization, recitation, and some questioning. This also implies that content was the overriding concern of the authors.

Relation between reader content and reading comprehension methodology in the Canadian Readers. As there was no methodology presented within the Canadian Readers series a comparison between the reader content and reading comprehension methodology could not be made. However, the type and form of reader content contained in the Canadian Readers was coded by this investigator. Table 5.1 shows the frequency and percentage of the type of content found in the readers. Frequency refers to the number of selections of a particular content type that were coded. In order to obtain the percentage of content type, the number of selections coded in one category were totalled and then divided by the total number of selections in the reader designed for a particular grade. The difficulty encountered here was that several selections belonged to more than one category. In this case a selection was coded in each of the categories in which it could fit. Thus the total number of selections often exceeded the total number recorded for the reader. By doing this continuously, however, the coding was consistently distributed throughout different categories which offset discrepancies in the percentage of content type found.

It is interesting to note that only two readers were designed for three grades in the Canadian Readers series. A completely graded reading series had not yet been published for Canadian schools.

Based on the information provided in Table 5.1 it is evident that poetry and the prose content types of biography, historical, and moralistic selections were found the most frequently in the Canadian Readers. While it had been appropriate to code a poem as a total, natural whole this may have produced a somewhat distorted picture of the type of content in the reading series as poetry shows up to be a very dominant category. If the content in the readers had been coded in terms of pages a very different picture would have appeared although the percentage of poetry would still have been quite high.

The biographies in the Canadian Readers very often had a historical dimension which meant that these two categories contained some overlap. Fairytales, legends, fables, folktales, and myths taken together form a major category although separately they represent a very small percentage of the content. For the most part these types of stories are found in the fourth grade reader.

More fantasy, historical, adventure, and animal/nature stories are found within book five than book four. Very few plays, geographical, scientific, technological, or humourous selections were included in the readers which would tend to suggest that expository writing was not a dominant written form within the series. This is verified by the information contained in Table

Table 5.1

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in the
Canadian Readers; Adopted 1925-1935

Content	Grade 4 Freq.	Grade 4 % total sel.	Grade 5 Freq.	Grade 5 % total sel.	Total Freq.	Total % total sel.
Poetry	50	49.0	64	52.8	114	51.1
Prose:						
Biography	13	12.7	10	8.3	23	10.3
Historical	9	8.8	14	11.6	23	10.3
Morals/values	8	7.8	7	5.8	15	6.7
Animals/nature	4	3.9	8	7.8	12	5.4
Religious	5	4.9	7	5.8	12	5.4
Myths/legends	8	7.8	2	1.7	10	4.5
Real./Interper.	6	5.8	3	2.5	9	4.0
Fantasy	2	2.0	7	5.8	9	4.0
Adventure	2	1.0	5	4.1	7	3.1
Fables/tales	6	5.8	0	0.0	6	2.7
Canadian life	1	1.0	2	1.7	3	1.3
Humour/nonsense	0	0.0	3	2.5	3	1.3
Drama	0	0.0	2	1.7	2	0.9
Functional	0	0.0	1	0.8	1	0.4
Geography	0	0.0	1	0.8	1	0.4
Technological	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Science	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

5.2 which illustrates the frequency and percentage of the written forms found in the Canadian Readers.

As in coding the content type of the readers the selections were coded according to the appropriate category of content form. The total number of selections for each form was then recorded in the table under frequency and when divided by the total number of selections in the reader the percentage of the content form found in each reader was obtained. The total percentage will not add to 100 due to the coding of content form in more than one category.

Table 5.2

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in the Canadian Readers: Adopted 1925-1935

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	40	39.2	46	38.0	86	38.6
Descriptive/ Informational	23	22.5	24	19.8	47	21.1
Expository	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Literary - Poetry	50	49.0	64	52.8	114	51.1
- Drama	0	0.0	2	1.7	2	0.9
Functional	0	0.0	1	.8	1	0.4

From the table the dominance of the narrative and literary style in the form of poetry is evident. There was also very little functional or expository writing in the series which would suggest that such reading skills as study skills or content areas skills would not have been developed by the methodology.

Several themes seem to come through from reading the content. Hard work, friendship, loyalty, courage, finding pleasure in nature and small things all emerge as values worth striving for. To this end several biographies portray courageous and heroic deeds of individuals among whom are two famed Canadian women pioneers, Marie de Vérchères and Edith Cavell.

There is some Canadian content in these readers representing a slight increase from that of the Ontario Readers. In book four 5 prose selections or 9.6% are explicitly Canadian in orientation as compared with 8 or 11.9% in book five. As in the previous series the content and authors are predominantly British.

Included throughout the narrative selections are many excerpts from such famous classical pieces of literature as Charles Kingsley's Water Babies, Dickens' Christmas Carol, and Black Beauty by Anna Sewell.

Methodology in the Treasury Reading series. With the publication of the Treasury Reading series (1932-1934) methodology generally received more attention than it had previously.

Having presented the program's underlying philosophy of reading the authors went on to suggest principles of methodology for the teacher's use and illustrated the application of these through specific selections from the readers. Next came a section where an introductory note was given about each selection followed by either a section entitled "Classroom Activities" or "Helps to Study." Here specific questions, directives, exercises, and activities were provided for the teacher. Often this same type of section appeared at the end of a poem or story in the reader.

From these sections most of the reading comprehension methodology was coded. In Table 5.3 the percentage of the reading comprehension methodology that was directly related to the development of specific reading comprehension skills is presented. Also shown in Table 5.3 is the frequency of the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities coded.

The table indicates that very few purposes were given the readers before silent reading of selections. This is entirely supported as well by a subjective analysis of the readers and manuals. Only occasionally was a purpose given either in the introduction to the selection or before the actual selection in the reader. This does not mean that a background discussion or preparation for reading did not take place but this was most often general without any specific reason set for reading a given piece. Neither were readers encouraged to set their own purposes.

There were also very few directives, skill exercises, and activities. This is understandable given that within the manual a fair degree of flexibility had been allowed the teacher. The authors had provided general procedures and examples but did not apply a rigid format for use with every story.

As indicated in Table 5.3 questioning was the major strategy to be implemented by the teachers. Those reading comprehension skills most developed by the methodology generally and questions specifically were the skills of details, cause-effect relationships, character traits, author's use of language, emotional response, compare/contrast, and imagery. Imagery received the most emphasis by the program's activities. Predicting

Table 5.3

Reading Comprehension Methodology in the Treasury Reading Series
Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to skills																					
	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	13	30.8				7.7	23.1											7.7	23.1			7.7		100.1
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum	13	30.8				7.7	23.1											7.7	23.1			7.7		100.1
Directives	4	9	22.2																	11.1	11.1	11.1	44.4		99.9
	5	2				100.0																			100.0
	6																								
	Sum	11	18.2			18.2														9.1	9.1	9.1	36.4		100.0
Questions	4	311	23.8	6.4	0.3	7.1	11.3	7.4	2.3	1.9					0.3	0.6	3.2	0.6	4.2	5.8	1.9	10.3	10.6	1.9	99.9
	5	586	20.5	2.6	0.5	7.2	17.1	18.8	1.0	2.6	0.3				1.9		1.0	1.5	4.8	7.5	0.5	7.8	3.8	0.7	100.1
	6	356	29.5	4.2		5.6	12.6	6.5	0.3	4.8		0.3			1.7	0.3	0.6	2.5	4.2	11.5	0.8	11.5	2.2	0.8	99.9
	Sum	1253	23.9	4.0	0.3	6.7	14.4	12.5	1.1	3.0	0.2	0.1			1.4	0.2	1.4	1.6	4.5	8.2	1.0	9.5	5.0	1.0	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	1																					100.0		100.0
	5	1		100.0																					100.0
	6	1										100.0													100.0
	Sum	3		33.3								33.3											33.3		99.9
Activities	4	17																					100.0		100.0
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum	17																					100.0		100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4																								
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum																								
	Total	1297	23.5	3.9	0.3	6.6	14.0	12.3	1.1	2.9	0.2				1.4	0.2	1.4	1.5	4.4	8.2	1.0	9.3	6.6	1.0	100.0

outcomes, sequence, figurative language, and main ideas were virtually ignored by the methodology.

Many of the skills lacking in the Treasury Reading Series, such as outlining, classifying, summarizing, adequacy/validity, fact/opinion, worth, and appropriateness belonged to the categories of reorganization and evaluation. This is further illustrated in Table 5.4 which gives the reading comprehension levels that were demanded by the reading comprehension methodology. The information presented in Table 5.4 shows that an almost equal emphasis was given the literal, inferential, and appreciative levels by the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities with very little attention directed by the reading comprehension methodology to the levels of reorganization and evaluation.

This program had included suggestions for class activities which is the first time the word 'activity' entered the covers of a Canadian reading series. These generally involved written or oral responses to questions but did include others such as excursions, practical 'life' oriented activities like making a clove hitch, dramatization, and drawing. The emphasis was not great but was in keeping with the tone of the writers' philosophy that reading should be made enjoyable and interesting for the child. This is further supported by the authors' general suggestions for teaching literature lessons where, for example, in referring to memorization of selections they strongly recommended that the child be free to select those passages which interest him. Motivating the children's reading was considered very important by the

Table 5.4

Reading Comprehension Methodology in the Treasury Reading Series
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	13	46.2	15.4		7.7	30.8		100.1
	5								
	6								
	Sum	13	46.2	15.4		7.7	30.8		100.1
Directives	4	9	22.2				77.8		100.0
	5	2		100.0					100.0
	6								
	Sum	11	18.2	18.2			63.6		100.0
Questions	4	311	28.6	31.8		9.0	28.6	1.9	99.9
	5	586	28.8	41.3	0.3	9.2	19.6	0.7	99.9
	6	356	34.0	29.5	0.3	9.3	26.1	0.8	100.0
	Sum	1253	30.2	35.6	0.2	9.2	23.7	1.0	99.9
Skill Exercises (M)	4	1					100.0		100.0
	5	1	100.0						100.0
	6	1			100.0				100.0
	Sum	3	33.3		33.3		33.3		99.9
Activities	4	17					100.0		100.0
	5								
	6								
	Sum	17					100.0		100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4								
	5								
	6								
	Sum								
	Total	1297	29.9	34.7	0.3	8.9	25.1	1.0	99.9

authors who provided such ideas as giving children extended opportunities for extensive reading, attractive displays, records and charts, and library visits for the teacher to use.

When teaching literature the teacher was admonished to know the selection well, not to overanalyze but to present the unity of a piece by employing five steps: an introduction where the setting for the story was created and interest stimulated, reading to the class, distinguishing major thought units, reading other selections for the purpose of comparison, and conclusion where the students could reread for specific information. The reading of a selection whether oral or silent was to continue to the end without stoppages so that the fullest appreciation and enjoyment of the story resulted.

Relation between theory and methodology in the Treasury Reading Series. Given the view of reading and objectives for reading instruction contained in the Treasury Readers one would anticipate a corresponding methodology to be present in this series that would serve as a guide for developing both the goals and specific skills of reading highlighted within the series.

An analysis of the information presented in Tables 5.3 (p.144) and 5.4 (p.146) had shown that there was some emphasis given to the Appreciative level of reading comprehension within the reading methodology presented in the Treasury series: emotional response, imagery, and author's use of language being among the most frequently coded categories. This indicates that to a fair extent the methodology presented within the program was consistent with the program's goals and underlying theoretical principles which had stressed the importance of developing literary appreciation. This had been highlighted to such a point, in fact, that one would have likely anticipated more stress to be placed on appreciation than actually was.

The authors had defined reading as a thinking, meaning-centered process and their attention to the methodology at the inferential level of comprehension is, therefore, consistent with their philosophy. However, the evaluative aspect of reading comprehension was not strongly evident in the methodology which demonstrates some inconsistency between the program's view of reading and its reading comprehension methodology.

The omission of instructional ideas for developing reading skills within the reorganizational level of reading comprehension also appears to be somewhat inconsistent with the program's stated view that study skills such as summarizing, outlining, and locating information were important aspects of reading comprehension. Perhaps even more surprising is the lack of purposes given in the reading methodology the importance of which had certainly been stressed by the authors.

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in the Treasury Reading Series. The *Treasury Reading Series* did not contain a description or overview of the curriculum content in the series in relation to reading comprehension other than what was present within the program's statements regarding its goals and view of reading. Therefore, a comparison between the program's stated curriculum content and the reading comprehension methodology coded by the researcher could not be made.

In addition, no one particular reading comprehension skill was associated with any purpose, question, directive, activity, or skill exercise which prevents any comparison between the author's view of the intent of suggested methodology and that of the writer.

Relation between reader content and methodology in the Treasury Reading Series. One of the major goals of the Treasury Reading Series published between 1932 and 1934 was the development of literary appreciation. This implies that the content of the readers must have been very important and of a high literary quality. This, indeed, is verified by Wootton, Dilz and Bremner (193) who made the following statement.

> Whether the reading purpose be claimed by extensive independent reading, or by special types of silent reading training, the literature lesson or oral reading exercise, the basis should always be worthwhile literature drawn from as wide a range of subjects as possible. (p. 7)

From an analysis of the type of content in this series the above statement is supported. Table 5.5 presents the results of coding the type of content in the Treasury Readers for grades four, five, and six.

Poetry, moralistic selections, myths, animal and nature stories, and biographies represent the most frequent content categories. Most noticeably, myths and legends, adventure stories, historical selections, and stories of humour have increased by grade six while fantasy and realistic stories have decreased. This would suggest that some consideration was given to children's

Table 5.5

Frequency and Percentage of the Content Type
in the Treasury Readers

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	38	56.7	31	38.3	34	46.6	103	46.6
Prose:								
Morals/values	7	10.4	14	17.3	8	11.0	29	13.1
Myths/legends	3	4.5	8	9.9	14	19.2	25	11.3
Animals/nature	7	10.4	8	9.9	7	9.6	22	10.0
Biography	3	4.5	8	9.9	4	5.5	15	6.8
Fantasy	6	9.0	5	6.2	1	1.4	12	5.4
Real/Inter.	3	4.5	8	9.9	0	0.0	11	5.4
Adventure	1	1.5	3	3.7	4	5.5	8	3.6
Humour/nons.	2	3.0	3	3.7	3	4.1	8	3.6
Historical	1	1.5	1	1.2	5	6.8	7	3.2
Fables/tales	1	1.5	3	3.7	0	0.0	4	1.8
Science	0	0.0	3	3.7	0	0.0	3	1.4
Religious	0	0.0	1	1.2	2	2.7	3	1.4
Geography	1	1.5	1	1.2	0	0.0	2	0.9
Drama	1	1.5	1	1.2	0	0.0	2	0.9
Canadian life	1	1.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5
Technological	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

differences in reading interests. The lack of science passages or technological content is consistent with the fact that narrative and literary writing forms constituted the greatest percentage of written forms in these readers. This is shown more clearly in Table 5.6 which presents the frequency and percentages of written forms found in the Treasury Readers.

Table 5.6

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in the Treasury Readers

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	28	41.8	47	58.0	37	50.7	112	50.7
Descriptive/ Informational	8	11.9	19	23.5	11	15.1	38	17.2
Expository	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Literary:								
Poetry	38	56.7	31	38.3	34	46.6	103	46.6
Drama	1	1.5	1	1.2			2	0.9
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Table 5.6 shows that narrative and literary writing were present to a great extent in the Treasury Readers while the expository and functional written forms were non-existent.

Within the reader content qualities of industry, humility, courage, and devotion to duty were portrayed through such stories as tales of heroes like Robin Hood and Ulysses. The evils of greed, laziness, vanity,and envy were also present in several selections.

Several Canadian authors contributed to the Treasury Readers, among them such notable writers as Charles D. Roberts, Norman Duncan, E. J. Pratt, Bliss Carman, and Susanne Moodie. In book four there are six prose selections with explicit Canadian content representing approximately 20% of the prose content; in book five there were 11 representing approximately 22% and in book six there were eight which constituted approximately 20% of the prose content. The percentage of Canadian prose content in the Treasury Readers had increased over that in the Canadian Readers.

As in the Canadian Readers several selections were from such literary works as Water Babies, Robinson Crusoe, Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, Gulliver's Travels, Jungle Book and Ivanhoe. These were few in number, however.

As indicated in Tables 5.3 (p.144) and 5.4 (p.146) there were few purposes, directives, activities or skill exercises evident in the Treasury Reading Series questions being the most frequently occurring comprehension strategy suggested. In examining the relationship between the type and form of reader content and corresponding methodology questions constituted much of the basis for comparison. Having analyzed the content and methodology the author concluded that for the most part there was a fairly high consistency between the two. In a few cases, however, the writer concluded that more relevant questions could have been included which would have fallen into the evaluative and appreciative levels of reading comprehension.

Taken as a whole the program's reading comprehension methodology was relatively consistent with the type of content included in the readers. The amount of literary content had been quite high in the readers compared to descriptive or expository content which is consistent with the emphasis in the methodology on such skills as character traits, author's use of language, emotional response, and imagery and the neglect in the methodology of those skills which were part of the reorganizational level of reading comprehension.

Methodology in the Highroads to Reading Series. In the Highroads to Reading Series the authors (1935) stated that the reading activities in the program were designed to promote the following objectives:

> 1. Systematic instruction in silent reading with emphasis upon speed and comprehension; the development of study habits; objective testing; diagnostic and remedial work.
> 2. Much wide, cursory reading; use of the school library with appropriate supervision and application where possible.
> 3. Definite instruction concerning effective reading in the various subjects of the curriculum with special study methods appropriate to each.
> 4. Motivated oral reading to an attentive and sympathetic audience.
> 5. Reading for literary appreciation. (p. 5)

General suggestions for teaching procedures for each of the above were made in the chapter on silent reading. For example, during the discussion of "The Ability to Organize Material" which is related to and develops naturally from the "ability to select facts according to their worth" outlining is recommended for giving pupils practice in selecting and recording significant facts from silent reading material, as is grouping paragraphs under appropriate general headings. The following example illustrates these procedures in conjunction with the reader selection about Sir Roland, a knight of the Round Table, and his winning of the Silver Shield.

B. By class discussion and further reference to the text each main topic is analysed and the development indicated on the blackboard somewhat as follows:

1) The setting --
    a) Forest, giants, knights, lord of the castle.
    b) Shields--cloudy or bright; the golden star.
2) Preparations for battle --
    a) Of giants; of knights.
    b) Young Sir Roland has his apparently insignificant duties assigned.
    c) His disappointment.
3) The victory --
    a) The knights march out, leaving Sir Roland disconsolate.
    b) The wounded knight returns.
    c) The beggar woman seeks admittance at the gate; taunts Sir Roland with cowardice.
    d) The little old man tempts Sir Roland.
    e) He is refused admittance and is found to be a giant in disguise.
    f) The victorious knights return.
4) The golden star appears on the silver shield --
    a) Sir Roland enters the great hall of the castle.
    b) All are amazed to see the golden star on his shield.
    c) Sir Roland reports the seemingly little incidents at the gate.
    d) The lord of the castle announces that Sir Roland has fought and won the hardest battle of the day.

Grouping paragraphs. Another device for training in ability to organize material is that of having pupils group paragraphs together under appropriate general headings. As each paragraph is read, the topic is listed by the pupils independently, or by the teacher on the blackboard as a result of class discussion. For example:

Paragraph one tells of the forest, the giants, the knights, and the lord of the castle. Paragraph two

> describes the silver shield. Paragraph three tells how shields are cloudy or bright according to use. Paragraph four tells of the Golden Star. Paragraph five tells of preparation for battle, etc.
>
> When the reading is completed and all paragraph headings are listed, the pupils set about to group them into larger units. With a little guidance they will discover that:
>
> a) Paragraphs one to four comprise the setting of the story.
> b) Paragraphs five to ten describe the preparations for battle.
> c) Paragraphs eleven to twenty-one tell of the victory.
> d) The remaining paragraphs are devoted to the amazing appearance of the Golden Star.
>
> (pp. 13-14)

In the chapter "Special Considerations for the Teachers" both memorization and dramatization were presented as procedures to be utilized. As in the Treasury Series the teachers were admonished to give the pupils freedom to choose passages they would like to memorize. These were to be large units because of the recent research of psychologists. As the authors stated (1935)

> This is particularly true of the intermediate grades, for the psychologists tell us that ability to memorize approaches the optimal point between eight and fourteen years of age; that pupils can memorize a thousand or more lines each year without undue effort, and that a considerable part of what is memorized at this time will remain permanently stored in the mind. (p. 63)

Again the teachers were cautioned not to overanalyze and to develop thought by directing their instruction toward such abilities as:

1. Ability to perceive the relationship of whole and parts
2. Ability to visualize pictures
3. Ability to appreciate language
4. Ability to appreciate symbolism, when that appears.
5. Ability to appreciate moral teaching, when that is obvious and intentional

6. Ability to appreciate character portrayal
7. Ability to dramatize situations
8. Desire and ability to find and read supplementary material. (p. 69)

In the chapter devoted to "Lesson Planning" an overall plan was set forth for the teacher to follow in teaching a reading lesson. This encompassed the preparation of the teacher, the introduction and assignment of reading to the pupils, the preparation by the pupils, and after work. Within the introduction the teacher's role was to furnish motivation where even a given purpose to guide the child's reading might suffice. The following is an example of the procedures suggested by the authors (1935) in relation to the story "Chinooks."

> Chinooks--page 320.
>
> This selection is informational and descriptive.
>
> The teacher's preparation will involve outlining and a clear visualization of the pictures presented in the various paragraphs.
>
> The introduction may consist of a blackboard sketch showing the Pacific, the mountain elevations, and the prairie section and indicating the path of a chinook. The teacher should prepare in advance to develop such a sketch.
>
> The pupils may then read the selection through to get the general drift and come [illegible] class prepared to discuss what they have read; or the first reading may take place in the class period and consist of teacher and pupils together following the description paragraph by paragraph. The reading will be largely silent. This type of selection lends itself to careful reading, picture by picture, and provides excellent training for effective thought-getting.
>
> After work might consist of pupils explaining in detail and illustrating by a sketch the cause of a sudden rise of many degrees in temperature some winter's day after a cold north blast has given place to a soft west wind. (p. 11)

From the methodological sections of "Helps to Study" and "Related Activities" written for reader selections came the content which was coded by skill. Table 5.7 presents the percentage of the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities that was geared toward developing specific reading comprehension skills.

According to the information in Table 5.7 there were almost no directives and purposes contained in the methodology. This is not entirely accurate. It is true that few were located within the specific methodological sections designed for a particular reader story but within the general discussion of instructional principles which were a guide to the teacher purposes and directives were very much in force. This is illustrated in the following excerpt from the teacher's manual (1935) which presents procedures for the teacher to implement in relation to "Peter Johnson's Boots."

> II. ILLUSTRATIONS FROM THE READERS
>
> A. FROM BOOK FOUR
>
> Peter Johnson's Boots--page 10.
>
> The teacher will have studied this selection in advance and have made an analysis into topics for her own satisfaction and as a proof that she understands the order of the story, but she will not give her outline to the pupils unless there is some definite and worthy purpose in doing so. She will find that no thought-introduction is necessary, and only two words are likely to cause trouble. She may introduce these in conversation, as if incidentally, before the lesson begins. She will have decided which sentences or paragraphs are most suitable for oral reading and for dramatization. She will have decided what the general order of the lesson is likely to be.
>
> Then she says, "We are to have a funny story--a Swedish folk-tale. I am sure you will enjoy it if you read it through for yourselves. If you like it, perhaps we might act it. Read it a second time to find out how

Table 5.7

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Highroads to Reading Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

Percentage of methodology related to skills

	Gr.	Freq. coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp./contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	3	33.3			33.3												33.3							99.9
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum	3	33.3			33.3												33.3							99.9
Directives	4																								
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum																								
Questions	4	177	29.9	5.1		10.2	20.3	1.1	0.6						1.1		0.6		0.6	7.9	4.0	3.4	6.2	9.0	100.0
	5	337	26.1	1.5	0.3	5.6	35.9	5.9	1.5	2.4						0.3	0.3	2.7		3.3	1.2	6.8	1.5	4.7	100.0
	6	328	17.4	5.5	0.3	8.5	16.8	6.7	1.8	5.5		0.3			1.5	0.9	2.1	0.9	4.3	10.1	0.6	6.1	3.4	7.3	100.0
	Sum	842	23.5	3.8	0.2	7.7	25.2	5.2	1.4	3.1		0.1			0.8	0.5	1.1	1.4	1.8	6.9	1.5	5.8	3.2	6.7	99.9
Skill Exercises (M)	4	14	28.6	14.3				28.6						14.3			7.1					7.1			100.0
	5	15	53.3				26.7										20.0								100.0
	6																								
	Sum	29	41.4	6.9			13.8	13.8						6.9			13.8					3.4			100.0
Activities	4	14				7.1	7.1		7.1											7.1			71.4		99.8
	5	5																					100.0		100.0
	6	3																					100.0		100.0
	Sum	22				4.5	4.5		4.5											4.5			81.8		99.8
Skill Exercises (W)	4																								
	5																								
	6																								
	Sum																								
Total		896	23.5	3.8	0.2	7.5	24.2	5.4	1.5	2.9		0.1		0.2	0.8	0.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	6.6	1.5	5.6	5.0	6.3	100.2

> many actors we shall need, and what each shall say and do."
>
> The pupils can then be given a time to work alone. If one meets a difficulty, he can write it on a slip of paper and put it on the question peg. Taking questions from the peg is always interesting.
>
> Here the class work begins. The children tell the story--perhaps part by part. They decide to act it; but first they have practice in reading some of the dialogue to show that they have seen the real pictures. This part of the work is not to be hurried. Perhaps one or two might read the whole story.
>
> After this the pupils could proceed to the acting. They should be trusted to do it in their own way. A teacher can easily do a great deal of harm by doing or suggesting too much. She can always express admiration for the best the children do.
>
> Then there can be the telling of parallel incidents in the lives of people the pupils know. The teacher may tell the well-known story from The Vicar of Wakefield--the trading of the pony for the spectacles. (p. 100)

As with the Treasury Readers questions represent the most dominant instructional strategy. The number of skill exercises and activities are about the same as was in "Treasury," and, again, most of the activities demanded imagery. With the exception of character traits the six most frequently recorded skills in "Highroads,"-details, cause-effect relationships, emotional response, authors' use of language, compare-contrast, and imagery were also the most frequently recorded skills in the Treasury Reader series; and the skills of predicting, sequence, main ideas, figurative language and those belonging in the categories of reorganization and evaluation were neglected in "Highroads" as they were in "Treasury." About the only difference in the methodology between these two series is that more character traits were found in "Treasury" and more cause-effect in "Highroads."

The lack of attention toward developing pupils' evaluative and reorganizational skills is further highlighted in Table 5.8 which shows the percentage of the reading comprehension methodology which developed specific reading comprehension levels.

As with the Treasury Readers the inferential level of reading comprehension was demanded by the methodology in the Highroads to Reading series a little more than the literal level, being second in frequency. The appreciative level, too, did not receive as much emphasis as it had in the Treasury Reading series although the same skills were 'taught.'

Relation between theory and methodology in Highroads to Reading. To a certain extent there was a consistent relationship between the authors' view of reading and reading instruction in the Highroads to Reading series and the suggested reading comprehension methodology. The authors had considered the development of literary tastes that included the appreciation of language, character traits, and imagery to be an important objective of their series and of the seven most frequently recorded skills of reading comprehension demanded by the methodology those of emotional response to language, the authors' use of language, character traits, and imagery represented four.

The fact that approximately 38% of the coded reading comprehension methodology was at the inferential level of reading comprehension as compared to the 31% at the literal level also shows a fairly consistent relationship between the authors' view that reading was a thinking process and the comprehension demanded by

Table 5.8

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Highroads to Reading
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Percentage of methodology related to levels: Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	3	33.3	33.3		33.3			99.9
	5								
	6								
	Sum	3	33.3	33.3		33.3			99.9
Directives	4								
	5								
	6								
	Sum								
Questions	4	177	41.2	26.0		2.3	21.5	9.0	100.0
	5	337	39.3	39.8		3.3	12.8	4.7	100.1
	6	328	16.8	45.7	0.3	9.8	20.1	7.3	100.0
	Sum	842	31.0	39.2	0.1	5.6	17.5	6.7	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	14	57.1	14.3	14.3	7.1	7.1		99.9
	5	15	60.0	20.0		20.0			100.0
	6								
	Sum	29	58.6	17.2	6.9	13.8	3.4		99.9
Activities	4	14		21.4			78.6		100.0
	5	5					100.0		100.0
	6	3					100.0		100.0
	Sum	22		13.6			86.4		100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4								
	5								
	6								
	Sum								
	Total	896	31.1	37.8	0.3	5.8	18.6	6.3	99.9

the program's methodology. Even so, this relationship could have been made much stronger for the evaluative level of reading comprehension was hardly present and the reading comprehension skill of main idea was seldom required of a student, a surprising situation given that the skill of selecting important elements and appropriate information had been stressed by the authors. Then, too, the importance of organization had also been stressed but very little of the methodology designed to develop a student's reading comprehension had been directed at the reorganizational level.

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in Highroads to Reading. No statement or presentation of curriculum content was given in the *Highroads* series. Neither was any aspect of the reading comprehension methodology designated as developing a particular reading comprehension skill. Therefore, no comparison between the curriculum content and methodology could be carried out.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Highroads to Reading. In selecting the content for the *Highroads Readers* three major divisions of reading matter were considered: that which conveys information; that which offers advice of some assistance to the reader's solving of life's problems; and that which provides enjoyment and inspiration. This was guided by the belief of the authors that "the aim of reading instruction by the intermediate grades is to develop good reading habits and to cultivate a taste for good literature" (1935, p. 3). This does not necessarily mean that the didactic element was neglected for as the authors (1935) noted:

> It is ever present in unobtrusive form in story, myth, fable, in prose and in many poetry selections. . . . That is, the moral elements are inherent; they should not be unduly stressed by the teacher. (p.3)

In choosing selections for the readers the next most important criteria was the reading interests of pupils. The authors referred to psychological studies for support of their selection of content. The content in these readers, as in the Treasury Readers, was organized around topics of central interest. For example, book four had eight topics: (1) Folktales andFancy, (2) Home and Country, (3) People of Other Lands, (4) People of Other Days, (5) The World About Us, (6) Old Favourites, (7) Well-Loved Books, and (8) Round the Year. In addition to being grouped around a central theme the arrangement of the material was such as to provide for a gradual development of the theme. As the authors (1934) stated, each section reflects the qualities of unity and coherence" (p.9). A specific breakdown of the percentage and frequency of the content type in this series is portrayed in Table 5.9.

Poetry and the prose categories of myths, legends, fairytales, folktales, and fables were the three major categories of content which is consistent with the program's philosophy of the importance of literary content. It is difficult to ascertain any pattern in relation to the gradual increase or decrease of much of the content across the grades. There was, however, a definite increase in myths, legends, and moralistic content from reader four to reader six, and an increase

Table 5.9

Frequency and Percentage of the Content Type
in the Highroads Readers, 1935-1949

Content	Grade 4 Freq.	Grade 4 % total sel.	Grade 5 Freq.	Grade 5 % total sel.	Grade 6 Freq.	Grade 6 % total sel.	Total Freq.	Total % total sel.
Poetry	46	49.5	39	47.0	51	55.0	136	50.7
Prose:								
Myths/legends	10	10.7	13	15.7	1	1.1	24	9.0
Fables/tales	12	12.9	2	2.4	8	8.7	22	8.2
Historical	3	3.2	8	9.6	10	10.9	21	7.8
Morals/values	10	10.7	5	6.0	2	2.2	17	6.3
Biography	2	2.2	8	9.6	6	6.5	16	6.0
Animals/nature	5	5.4	3	3.6	4	4.3	12	4.5
Canadian life	0	0.0	5	6.0	6	6.5	11	4.1
Fantasy	3	3.2	4	4.3	2	2.2	9	3.4
Real./Interper.	4	4.3	1	1.2	3	3.3	8	3.0
Humour/nons.	0	0.0	3	3.6	5	5.4	8	3.0
Adventure	1	1.1	2	2.4	4	4.3	7	2.6
Drama	3	3.2	4	4.8	0	0.0	7	2.6
Religious	3	3.2	1	1.2	1	1.1	5	1.9
Technological	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	3.3	3	1.1
Geography	3	3.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.1
Science	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.1	1	0.4
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

in historical, humourous, and adventure stories.

Through many of these prose selections run themes of adventure and heroic deeds and such qualities of good character as courage, nobility, persistence, and hard work. Historical, moral, and biographical selections were next in frequency being rather close to one another in percentage. In actual fact these are very interrelated categories. Many biographies, for example, seemed to have a historical dimension as well as a moralistic one. The story Captain Robert Falcon Scott which told of Scott's ill-fated expedition to the South Pole not only illustrated human courage and perseverance but is a piece of history which still captures any reader's interest.

Other values which were inherent in the reader content include the need to appreciate what one has, pride in one's work, harmony, not to be deceived by outward appearances, justice, valuing nature and animals, the Golden Rule, greed, and the importance of humility.

As in the previous reading series most principal characters and heroes were male.

A growing patriotic note towards Canada was more evident in this series than any other. In reader four approximately 7 of 47 prose selections or 15% were identified as Canadian with 9 out of 44 or 20% in reader five, and 8 out of 41 or 19.5% in reader six which was about the same as had been in the Treasury Readers.

Such selections as "The Sugaring Off," a story of pioneer days in Ontario, "Across Canada with the Fur Brigade" which describes the long journey of early fur-traders across Canada, and "Place-Names of Canada" reflect this patriotic emphasis. Canadian history was depicted through several stories of pioneer life, of courageous pioneers like Father Lacombe, and Indian legends like that of the "Two Sisters" told by Pauline Johnson. Other stories told of settling in the west, of Canadian explorers, and others provided current information about Canada. In one selection we travel through Canada by train which served to heighten an awareness of Canadian geography and recent advances in transportation.

The results of coding the content presented in Table 5.10 indicate that the literary aim of the program was supported by the content.

Table 5.10

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in the Highroads Readers: 1935-1949

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	45	48.4	40	48.2	31	33.7	116	43.3
Descriptive/ Informational	11	11.8	6	7.2	17	18.5	34	12.7
Expository	0	0.0	1	1.2	8	8.7	9	3.4
Literary:								
Poetry	46	49.5	39	47.0	51	55.0	136	50.7
Drama	3	3.2	4	4.8	0	0.0	7	2.6
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Narrative and literary forms again represented the two major categories of content type found in the Highroads Series. For the first time in this period expository writing has made an appearance, especially in book six. In Figure 5.3 the evolving content in the Canadian readers studied in this period is shown in relation to the changing content of American readers.

The information in Figure 5.3 indicates that there were differences in the content of American and Canadian readers for this period. Canadian readers never did contain the very high percentage of informational or expository content which American readers did. This is interesting considering that silent reading was a part of the reading theory discussed in both the Treasury and Highroads manuals. Canadian readers retained a high percentage of literary content all through this period while American readers were only beginning to include more literature and poetry in the 1935 to 1950 period. The presence of literary content in the Canadian readers may have been partly due to the British influence. Toward the latter half of this period, however, the Canadian readers began to include more expository content.

In the writer's opinion there was a fairly consistent relationship between the type and form of the selections in the Highroads readers and the accompanying reading comprehension methodology which was very often in the form of questions. There were several occasions, however, when the writer felt that certain evaluative and appreciative aspects of reading comprehension could have been heightened more given the nature of the reader selection.

Content

	Canadian Readers		American Readers
1923-1934	poetry, biography, historical, moralistic; approximately 10% Canadian; predominantly British; narrative and literary form; no expository form; some descriptive-informational	1925-1931	varied; informative (related to silent reading); realistic, historical, myths, and fables greatly decreased; little poetry
1932-1949	poetry, moralistic, myths, legends, animal/nature; approximately 20% Canadian; prose content; predominantly British; narrative and literary form; small percentage descriptive-informational	1935-1950	moving more to including literaturn; return of poetry; realistic, informative and geographical
	1934: poetry, myths, fables and tales, historical, moral, and biography; approximately 20% Canadian prose content; predominantly British; narrative and literary form; small percentage expository; less percentage descriptive-informational		

Figure 5.3. Content in Canadian and American Readers from 1923 to 1949

The fact that little of the content was descriptive or expository in nature was consistent with the lack of reorganizational skills demanded by the reading comprehension methodology. The presence of a high percentage of literary and narrative content would also seem to be consistent with the program's concern with developing literary appreciation.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in the Field of Reading

The systematic approach to reading comprehension instruction, the use of questions, outlining, and activities's suggested in the *Treasury* and *Highroads to Reading* series were similar to suggestions made in the literature at that time by reading authorities (Goodykoontz, 1930; McKee, 1934). In particular, the approach to literature instruction advocated by the authors of these series was clearly that of Stone (1922), Leonard (1925) and McKee (1934). In fact, Stone and Leonard were listed as sources in these series.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in Other Fields

It seems fair to conclude that the formal lesson outlines found in *Treasury* and *Highroads* may have been a carry-over from Herbartianism. The presence of general methodological principles, lesson format, and objectives in both series indicates a growing concern with methodology and the possible effects of the scientific movement in education as well as the current concern with systematic curriculum making. This systematic flavour though was not as strong around 1935 as it was in the years between 1935 and 1949. Thus it would be expected to be more evident in reading series published after 1935.

Support for the impact of the progressive philosophy is found in the methodology: activities comprised a separate section in the manuals and at the end of reader selections, motivation for the purpose of securing the pupils' attitude and interest was suggested in the Preparation step for each lesson, and students were encouraged to memorize those pieces which interested them. Within the activity section dramatization, art, and nature excursions were included which represented an attempt by the authors to integrate reading with other curriculum areas. However, at best this effort must be classified as one of correlation and not integration for the core of the teaching-learning situation was the reader selection and its accompanying methodology. There was no real attempt to organize the content and teaching-learning experiences along the lines of the project method, neither were the intellectual processes of reasoning and problem-solving challenged although inferential thinking was required by the questioning strategy.

Perhaps this is not surprising given the state of progressivism at this time as reflected by the views in the thirty-third yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The authors of these reading series may have been cognizant of this and resisted extremes of either the 'traditional-essentialist, systematic' school or the 'progressive, activity, child-centered' school, trying instead to blend ingredients from both schools within a total view of reading and reading instruction.

Summary

It seems fair to conclude that aspects of developments in reading theory and research were translated into Canadian reading series studied in this period as were aspects of developments in curriculum and other related fields such as psychology. On the other hand, it is equally fair to conclude that certain developments in reading theory were not implemented into the series. The question remaining to be answered, therefore, is "Did aspects of these developments surface in the next set of Canadian elementary reading series which began their publication around 1946 that was completed around 1949/1950."

Chapter 6

EMPHASIS ON COMPREHENSION SKILLS: 1949-1974

In this chapter major curriculum developments occurring from 1949 to 1974 are described as are major developments in the field of reading. Following this is an analysis of the reading theory, reading content, and methodology contained in the Canadian elementary basal reading series selected from this period. Four reading series were analyzed: the Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading series published between 1946 and 1950; and the Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers series published between 1961 and 1966.

Major Curriculum Trends: 1949-1974

As the previous period came to a close so did the progressive education movement, although, as noted, certain curriculum authorities believed that it left a much greater legacy than is generally realized or acknowledged (Cremin, 1961; Edson, 1978; Eisner, 1967). In any event it is commonly held that with the launching of Sputnik in 1957 progressivism ended. Several factors contributed to its demise: criticism of the schools by critics such as Rickover and Bestor, the fact that the progressive education association had split into various factions, and the discontent of teachers with the inordinate amount of time needed for integrating curriculum units (Cremin, 1961). But more crucial than any of these reasons was the failure of progressivism to keep pace with the transformation of American society (Cremin, 1961).

As Chapter Five ended a new generation of curriculum specialists had arrived on the scene. By 1950 curriculum specialists such as Taba, Tyler, and Herrick had been voicing their ideas, the forty-fifth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. had been devoted to curriculum construction, the first conference on curriculum theory had been held at Teachers College, Columbia University and Tyler's syllabus on curriculum-making had been published. In the literature a model pertaining to curriculum development had appeared. This model, often referred to as the 'Tyler-model,' proposed a systematic approach to curriculum development based on an assessment of the needs, abilities, and interests of students following which objectives for curriculum and instruction were to be set.

After the launching of Sputnik Americans became very concerned with intellectual development and considered this to be a major goal of schooling. Quite naturally, therefore, the work of cognitive psychologists and academics would have implications for curriculum development.

Bloom (1956), a cognitive psychologist, developed a hierarchical model of cognition which defined six levels of cognition. These were, from lowest to highest: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The formulation of this model allowed classroom instructional strategies to be analyzed where teacher questions, for example, could be classified according to the level of cognition they demanded, and where educational objectives could be designed much more specifically. Sanders (1966) developed a guide for creating classroom questions that related to a particular level of cognitive difficulty. Sanders' categories of cognition were very similar to Bloom's and included from lowest to highest: memory, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Studies which investigated the use of questions at different cognitive levels for developing pupils' thinking were carried out by Aschner (1961), Carner (1963), Davis and Tinsley (1967), and Hunkins (1966). Using the categories created by Bloom and Sanders, Guszak (1966) investigated the cognitive levels of teacher questions during reading instruction. The results showed that most of the questions were at the knowledge level. This study had a major impact on the field of reading. Another psychologist whose work influenced curriculum-making was Bruner. Bruner had formulated a theory of cognition wherein the human organism was conceived as an active agent in cognitive functioning which was perceived by Bruner to be a decision-making/problem-solving process. Bruner's assertion that "any subject can be taught effectively in some honest form to any child at any stage of development" (Bruner, 1960, p. 33) provided a touchstone to many of the curriculum reforms carried out in the late fifties and sixties. Bruner (1960) believed that curriculum development needed to concentrate on deciding the basic organizing principles of particular subjects which could then become the base presented to children around which other activities would be integrated. And, of course, Bruner advocated the technique of problem-solving and the discovery approach for developing children's thinking.

At the famous Woods Hole conference held in 1959 the implications of this theory were translated into ideas for curriculum content and instruction. Based on this conference the Process of Education was written by Bruner (1960) wherein his idea that curriculum should be designed around the key structures of particular disciplines was elaborated. As a result of the discipline-centered focus many projects were initiated in mathematics, science, biology, physics, and social science which were translated into the school curriculum in many cases via the technology of the textbook (Tanner and Tanner, 1975). The methodology embodied within took the form of the discovery approach where students were led inductively to particular conclusions and generalizations.

Although curriculum specialists had not been greatly involved at Woods Hole or in designing the new curriculum they were aware of the events taking place and in many cases advocated curriculum reform along discipline-centered lines. At the second curriculum conference held at Teachers College, Columbia University in 1962 Fischer stated:

> We must analyze more effectively than we ever have before the character structure of each field, the peculiarities of the discipline by which it is built and the distinctive nature of each subject as a unique way of knowing. (p. 9)

This is not to say there were not dissenting voices to be heard. At the same conference Phenix (1962), in referring to the discipline-centered approach to curriculum, observed:

> This means that psychological needs, social problems and any of a variety of patterns of material based on other than discipline content are not appropriate to the determination of what is taught--though obviously such nondisciplinary considerations are essential to decision about the distribution of knowledge within the curriculum as a whole. (p. 58)

And Caswell used the conference forum as an opportunity to trace curriculum developments historically leading him to caution the repetition of a pendulum swing back to the domination of subject-matter specialists. From his historical perspective Caswell (1962) was also led to ask, in reference to the reliance of cognitive research in the present curriculum reform movement, "Is not our habit of transplanting into our educational plans the technical divisions of scientific research chiefly responsible for our many disappointments" (p. 111)?

Not only Bruner's work was having an effect at this time. Piaget's studies of child growth especially in the area of intellectual development were now being studied much more in depth by American psychologists and contributed greatly to the idea of a sequential curriculum that would pair intellectual offerings with the developing intellect of the child (Tanner and Tanner, 1975; McClure, 1971). Piaget's work contributed to the present concern with intellectual development generally as did the work of Guilford, an American psychologist, who in 1959 proposed a theory of the intellect. Having analyzed intelligence into its components, Guilford proposed that the intellect could be classified according to the basic operations performed which included five groups of intellectual abilities: factors of cognition, memory, convergent thinking, divergent thinking, and evaluation. There was also a second way of classifying intellectual factors--according to the kind of material or content involved which included three types: figural, symbolic, or semantic. When a particular operation was applied to a particular kind of content Guilford (1959) maintained "as many as six general kinds of products may be involved . . . units, classes, relations, systems, transformations, and implications" (p. 470). Guilford rationalized the importance of this analysis because of two recent and related events, the advent of Sputnik and "the crisis in education that has arisen in part as a consequence" (Guilford, 1959, p. 469).

Guilford's model represented another source that could affect curriculum development for as Guilford (1959) stated:

> If education has the general objective of developing the intellects of students, it can be suggested that each intellectual factor provides a particular goal at which to aim . . . we are in a better position to ask whether any general intellectual skills are now being neglected in education. (p. 478)

Curriculum workers did make use of the knowledge contributed by the psychologists. Taba, in Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice (1962) reiterated the importance of a sequential curriculum and extended her four-step model to seven steps. Beyond that Taba became well-known for her studies of the relation between teaching strategies and the development of children's thought processes (Taba, 1964, 1965) which were based on principles of cognition derived from the work of Piaget, Bruner, and others. From her studies Taba concluded that questioning strategies of the teacher could "extend and lift" pupils' level of thought and that through appropriate instruction which was carefully structured in a "sequential manner" with "appropriate timing and pacing" children could develop higher levels of mental functioning" (Taba, 1965, p. 540). Taba's work also provided more impetus for the continuing focus on cognitive development as a goal of the schools and sparked further curriculum work in the area of questioning.

In addition to an emphasis on children's cognitive development children's language growth was explored to a much greater extent during this period. Templin's (1957) longitudinal study of children's language development revealed insights into the growth and interrelations of the articulation of speech sounds, sound discrimination, vocabulary, and sentence structure in children from three to eight years. Studies by Loban (1963) and Strickland (1962) had investigated the oral language development of elementary school children which showed that children's language structures did evolve into more complex patterns as they grew older. More in depth studies of children's syntactical development were conducted by Hunt (1965) and O'Donnell, Griffith and Norris (1967). These researchers analyzed their language samples according to linguistic principles. In fact, growing awareness of children's language was due in part to the growing contribution of the linguists to education. This influence was particularly related to developments in reading which will be discussed in the next major section. Suffice it to say that during this period linguistics as a science was emerging spurred by the work of Bloomfield, Fries, Lefevre, and Chomsky and the studies which investigated the language acquisition of children (Menyuk, 1963; Chomsky, 1965; Slobin, 1966). Often, in fact, syntactic omissions noted in children's developing language were taken to indicate lower language development, and once a sequence of language acquisition was established children whose structures appeared later were often thought to be cognitively deficient. Attention to language dialect also became a major concern of linguists. Among the more prominent linguists here were Labov (1966, 1969, 1970) and Baratz (1970) who both argued that language differences did not equal defects. But in many quarters language performance was seen as the overt indication of cognitive development and by 1967 the "disadvantaged child" was often characterized as one who had language inadequacies. These inadequacies were described by Passow and Elliott (1967) as:

> Limited vocabulary and syntactic structure, inability to handle abstract symbols and complex language forms to interpret and communicate, difficulties in developing and maintaining thought sequences verbally, restricted verbal comprehension, unfamiliarity with formal speech patterns, and greater reliance on non-verbal communication means. (p. 28)

Because of these developments Bruner (1971) termed this period the period of "the deficit hypothesis" (p. 867), and Anderson (1965) observed that the spotlight was on language arts. Anderson's observation is supported by Burns' (1976) findings which resulted from his historical analysis of the evolution of language arts in the curriculum.

Curriculum reform along discipline-centered lines was still the order of the day in 1966 when the sixty-fifth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, The Changing American School, appeared. Here Goodlad referred to current curriculum reform as being discipline-centered. But by the mid 1960's criticisms were being voiced (Zais, 1976). These criticisms centered upon the curriculum being unrelated to life and ignoring of the aesthetic but at the same time there was a growing curriculum movement which stressed an even more systematic approach to curriculum making that involved the use of behavioral objectives. Now men like Mager and Popham played leading roles and psychologists again asserted an influence. This time it was the ideas of learning psychologists particularly those of Gagné and Ausubel which had an impact.

Gagné's The Conditions of Learning (1965) clearly shows a behavioristic orientation. Learning was defined as having occurred when there was an observable change in the performance of the learner resulting from what can be termed a stimulus-response learning situation. Gagné proposed that there were eight types of learning. Arranged hierarchically in order of complexity these were: signal learning, stimulus-response, chaining, verbal-association, multiple discrimination, concept formation, principles, and problem-solving. For each type of learning Gagné identified the condition in the learner and learning situation which needed to be met. Fundamental to learning taking place was the establishment of a planned sequence of instruction which began with the formulation of objectives that allowed the learner to know the performance to be expected when the learning was completed. As rationale for his structured approach Gagné argued that there was no substantial evidence proving the superiority of the discovery approach.

Ausubel was especially interested in investigating how cognitive structure facilitated verbal learning. His model of the cognitive organization necessary for the learning and retention of meaningful materials assumed the "existence of a cognitive structure that is hierarchically organized in terms of highly inclusive conceptual traces under which are subsumed traces of less inclusive subconcepts as well as traces of specific informational data" (Ausubel, 1965, p. 105). Ausubel (1965) argued that irrespective of subject matter two principles were applicable in the learning of content--the principle of progressive differentiation, where the most general and inclusive ideas of the discipline were presented first and then differentiated in terms of detail and specificity;and the principle of integrative reconciliation where relationships between ideas were explored, rather than the typical practice of segregating topics. Ausubel (1965) went even further and suggested a pedagogic strategy for implementing these principles, the use of

> appropriately relevant and inclusive organizers that are maximally stable and discriminable from related conceptual systems in the learner's cognitive structure. These organizers are introduced in advance of the learning material itself, are formulated in terms that are already familiar to the learner, and are also presented

> at a higher level of abstractness, generality, and inclusiveness; and, since the substantive content of a given organizer or series of organizers is selected on the basis of their suitability for explaining, integrating, and interrelating the material they precede (see above), this strategy simultaneously satisfies the substantive as well as the programming criteria already specified for enhancing the organizational strength of cognitive structure. (p. 111)

In addition to proposing such a pedagogic strategy Ausubel (1965) argued that verbal presentation was at least as valuable as the problem-solving technique and far less time consuming.

Thus both a cognitive and behavioristic orientation permeated curriculum development throughout the sixties carrying on into the seventies. As will be seen several of the events described here had an impact on the field of reading.

Major Developments in Reading: 1949-1974

Within this period several important events took place in the field of reading. Reading research mushroomed, theories of the reading process multiplied, reading specialists emerged in numbers and more reading materials than ever before were produced. Throughout this period there was a continuous interplay of ideas between reading, psychology, linguistics, and psycholinguistics. Therefore, the next sub-sections of the chapter are organized around the sources of information which had particular relevance for the field of reading between 1949 and 1974.

Psychology

Events in psychology had certainly left their mark on the field of reading prior to 1950. However, the relationship between psychology and reading deepened more and more over the next two decades as many different bonds between the two were established:

Reading and child development. The most noteworthy characteristic of the forty-eighth yearbook of the N.S.S.E., referred to in the previous chapter, was its attempt to relate facts derived from psychology, in particular from child development research, to instructional practices in reading (Witty, 1961). To that end emphasis was placed on the developmental nature of reading abilities.

In that yearbook Russell contributed a chapter entitled "Reading and Child Development" where he interrelated existing knowledge about children's development to reading instruction. Russell outlined stages in continuous reading growth which were similar to those described by Gray in the twenty-fourth yearbook. These were in order: prereading, beginning reading, initial stage of independent reading, transition stages, the intermediate stage and advanced stage. Russell also discussed the place of individual differences in reading development. That same year, as discussed earlier, Russell's Children Learn to Read (1949) was published. Here Russell reiterated the stages of reading growth and described the characteristics of children ages six to fourteen. Based on the recent findings of research and views about child development Russell believed that the development of children's reading abilities was a continuous process, that the order of development was much the same but might proceed at different rates, that there was variation in the age at which children reached stages and that there was a positive correlation between patterns of physical, mental, social and emotional development, and children's reading ability. Because of this Russell advocated that a reading program must be continuous and that through reading a child's own development was fostered. The work of child psychologists like Jersild and Gesell and curriculum specialists like Caswell played an important part in shaping Russell's thinking. Within his discussion of child development Russell incorporated a description of children's language growth using as his sources the writings of McCarthy (1946), Harrison (1941), Anderson (1942) and Smith (1944). Many principles advocated by Russell were very similar to those previously elucidated by Gray. As early as 1925 Gray had pointed out the stages of reading growth that pupils passed through and had suggested that this was justification for dividing a reading program into stages related to such growth. Again in 1937 Gray had stressed the importance of basing reading instruction on a clear understanding of child development. From 1950 on, however, the need for reading instruction to be related to child development was emphasized to a much greater extent influenced by Russell who had, in turn, been influenced by psychologists.

Until approximately 1970 reading as a developmental task following Russell's format was discussed by reading specialists. In the sixtieth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Development in and through Reading, a section was devoted to the implications of child development for reading instruction (Harris, 1961). A random survey shows this type of discussion to have appeared in several professional textbooks on reading: in the 1961 edition of Children Learn to Read, in Harris's How to Increase Reading Ability (1956, 1961, 1970) and Effective Teaching of Reading (1962, 1971), Dechant's Improving the Teaching of Reading (1964), Durrell's Improving Reading Instruction (1956), Strang and Bracken's Making Better Readers (1957), Strang's Helping Your Child Improve His Reading (1962), McKim's Guiding Growth in Reading (1955, 1961), DeBoer's Teaching of Reading(1964), and Spache's Toward Better Reading (1963). From about 1970 on a discussion of Russell's stages of reading growth was not as evident within professional reading texts. For example, it did not appear in texts written by DeBoer (1971, 1974), Karlin (1971, 1975), Smith and Barrett (1974), Spache (1973), and Duffy (1972).

The idea that reading was a continuous sequential process and that children proceeded through stages of reading growth helped to establish the tradition that reading instruction should follow certain steps, that children should not be given reading tasks they were not able to handle, that certain skills were more appropriate for children to be taught at a particular age and stage of intellectual growth. Within reading programs this meant that reading comprehension abilities were sequenced, certain ones listed for grade one pupils, others for grade three and so on. Russell (1960) himself proposed a sequence of comprehension skills to be taught from grades one to eight. This same sequence was incorporated into the Ginn Basic basal reading series authored by Russell.

Reading--a cognitive activity. By 1950 Gray had been writing for years about the nature of reading and factors that affected reading. Another individual who contributed to reading theory during this period was Stauffer.

At the thirty-seventh reading conference held at Delaware Stauffer (1956) introduced the theme as "Getting Meaning in Reading and Arithmetic." In elaborating that theme Stauffer referred to Thorndike's research which had made a major contribution to and given insights into reading comprehension. Others to whom Stauffer referred for support for developing his thesis that reading was a problem-solving activity were Dewey and Gray. Stauffer also believed that concept development was a very important prerequisite to reading comprehension and in elaborating that belief referred to the work of psychologists such as Hull, Heidbreder, Reed, and Johnson.

It was also Stauffer's belief that children could reason and solve problems logically but only through being actively involved and given appropriate instruction. As he (1956) stated:

> The skills, abilities, and attitudes needed for problem-solving are basically the same as those needed for comprehension in reading. Where improvement in reading instruction is the objective, procedures must be planned with this in mind. (p. 9)

The instructional program leading from this would have children set their own purposes for reading and adjust their reading in light of these which necessitated systematic planning. Throughout his active career Stauffer has adhered to his belief that reading is a problem-solving, reasoning activity and developed an instructional program which flowed from this base. Having already begun to formulate his theory of reading it comes of no surprise that the work of cognitive psychologists during the fifties and sixties should have influenced and contributed to his thinking as it did the thinking of others.

At the Delaware conference organized by Stauffer in 1958 Bruner was the keynote speaker. Bruner's influence on Stauffer's concept of reading can be much better appreciated having read a Study of Thinking written by Bruner, Goodman, and Austin (1956). In a Study of Thinking much of what came to be known as Bruner's theory of cognition appeared. Bruner described cognitive activity as involving the categorizing of experiences where the human organism was an active agent in a decision-making problem-solving process. In this theory the categorizing of concepts depends upon the nature of the attributes of objects being perceived. During the categorizing process the human organism searches for cues in its information storage, confirms the appropriateness or similarity of the incoming stimuli, and then synthesizes the new information with previous knowledge forming categories.

Besides having an impact on Stauffer, Bruner's work and developments in cognitive psychology generally during the sixties influenced the reading field. Jenkinson (1962), in Canada, explored the reading-thinking process utilizing the ideas and work of Bruner, Stauffer, and Russell. Other reading educators who viewed reading as a thinking or cognitive process were Dechant (1964), DeBoer (1960), Karlin (1970), Tinker and McCullough (1968), Spache (1963), and Palmer (1972).

Stauffer continued to express his notion of reading as concept development (1965) and as a thinking process (1969). His most comprehensive effort at translating the findings of psychologists into a theory of reading and a plan of reading instruction was with his book Directing Reading Maturity as a Cognitive Process (1969). Here Stauffer reviewed the work of Vinacke, Getzels and Jackson, Wertheimer, Dewey, Russell, Guilford, Thorndike, Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky attempting to translate the implications of their work for reading instruction. Thus, at least indirectly, psychologists can be said to have influenced the field of reading. Interestingly, although Piaget's work was by now well known in the United States very few studies had investigated the accuracy of Piaget's findings with respect to children's reading development. One major study, however, was carried out by Rawson (1969), a Canadian who received an Outstanding Dissertation Award for her research which showed that there was a consistency between cognitive development and reading development.

One of Stauffer's major recommendations for reading comprehension instruction was the "Directed-Reading-Thinking-Activity"--an instructional approach designed to increase a reader's comprehension. Basically this consisted of involving pupils in predicting and forming hypotheses while reading, in examining information, rereading, and making conclusions and generalizations.

Stauffer's view of the reader as an active information seeker who forms hypotheses and makes decisions was akin to the concept of intelligence which was emerging by the early 1960's, a conception of intelligence as "problem-solving capacity based on a hierarchical organization of symbolic representation and information-processing strategies . . ." (Hunt, 1961, p. 109), and a conception of the learner as an active agent who dealt with information—much like a computer the difference being that humans could seek new information outside of themselves. Thus learning was a process of discovery.

Other concepts of cognition apart from the problem-solving, information-processing orientation affected reading theory and reading comprehension instruction. As mentioned in the earlier section on major curriculum trends Guilford had formulated a model of the intellect which divided intelligence into many different elements. Around the same time Bloom had formulated his model of cognition. These two events, in particular, had an effect on reading and reading comprehension theory and practice.

In 1960 Guilford even attempted to translate his theory of the intellect into implications for reading instruction. In his words,

> Reading, when fully developed, is one of our most complex intellectual activities, involving many of the intellectual abilities which we may also regard as intellectual functions. (p. 178)

Spache (1963), a prominent reading authority, applied Guilford's model to the reading process where he tried to equate fine components of the reading process to the operations and intellectual divisions outlined by Guilford. Partly as a result of the work of Guilford and Spache reading was viewed by reading educators as being comprised of many aspects of sub-abilities. This, of course, was not a new concept of reading for previous research had suggested that reading was not a unitary process (Davis, 1941; Holmes, 1953). However, the "skills" view of reading grew to prominence in the sixties.

Reading as a complex process involving many different components was the view of reading specialists such as Strang (1957), DeBoer (1969), Spache (1963), DeChant (1964), and Duffy (1972) who stated, "Reading is a skill. More specifically reading is a group of skills that extend in a hierarchy from the simple to the complex" (p. 1). In the forty-eighth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. Durrell (1949) divided comprehension into three areas and associated skills with each. These divisions were: (1) simple comprehension which referred to the related skills of vocabulary, sentence structure, organization, and attention; (2) oral and written recall; and (3) higher mental processes which included elaborative thinking--making comparisons, applications, associations, seeing relationships, and critical thinking which was the evaluation of reading involving such skills as judging suitability, distinguishing fact from fiction, and discovering evidence of bias.

Later in 1960, Gray divided reading comprehension into the literal level--that which answers the question "what does the passage say?" a level where the reader acquired an expanded grasp of meaning--sensing meanings implied by the author; and a level where the reader understood the significance and implications in what was read. Also in 1960 Russell identified four levels of comprehension which included decoding, getting a general impression, literal comprehension, and interpretation. Russell (1960) believed comprehension was a complex of various abilities and suggested the following abilities should be developed in the intermediate grades.

- Discover a specific fact or facts
- Follow a sequence of ideas or events
  - of story
  - steps in process
  - cause/effect relationships
- Note and recall significant details
- Remember what is read
  - grasp ideas presented
- Summarize and organize important ideas
- Gather, assemble, and organize ideas on a problem
- Follow directions given in reading material
- Read critically and evaluate what is read
  - Anticipate outcomes
  - React to mood or tone of a selection
  - Recognize emotional reactions and motives of story characters
  - Consider ideas in light of one's knowledge and experiences
  - Draw inferences from a passage
  - Distinguish between statements of fact and opinion
  - Examine the support of statements made
  - Reach broad generalizations and conclusions
- Read for main ideas
  - The general meaning of the significance of the selection
  - The main idea of a passage
  - The main idea of a paragraph
- Read to make comparisons
  - Comparisons of two or more versions of a story
  - Comparison of two or more printed sources of information
- Grasp the organization of what is read
  - The large thought divisions of a selection
  - The structure of paragraphs
  - The design of a writing.

(p. 246)

It was Russell's opinion that through teaching students to interpret literature the fourth and fifth levels would be developed.

Reading for implied and inferred meanings included using given facts to derive fresh meanings or relationships which Russell felt was essential to comprehension. Within this cognitive complex predicting could occur. Reading for appreciative reactions involved literal understanding but was characterized by more of an emotional aspect and here imagery played a role.

The most complete taxonomy of reading comprehension, Barrett's Taxonomy, was created during this period. Influenced by Bloom (1956) Barrett (1968) proposed a taxonomic model of reading comprehension where he divided comprehension into five levels: literal, which focussed on ideas and information explicitly stated in a passage; reorganizational, where analysis and synthesis took place; inferential, where reading goes beyond the literal level; evaluative, where judgment is involved; and appreciative, which included the affective dimension of reading. Within each level Barrett identified particular skills or tasks. Essentially, this model was an effort to "define and classify reading comprehension abilities and to provide examples of tasks that may aid in the development of each of the comprehension skills so classified" (Barrett, 1968, p. 8). (Barrett's Taxonomy is fully reproduced in Appendix 2.)

As noted previously, Bloom's hierarchical model of cognition had provided a means for designing curriculum tasks, evaluating curriculum content, and analyzing classroom instruction. This had also provided a means whereby the kinds of teachers' questions employed in reading comprehension instruction and the content of reading materials could be analyzed to determine the levels of cognition demanded by each. Several content analyses were done of basal reading series.

Several content analyses were done of basal reading series using the taxonomy provided by either Bloom, Guszak, or Barrett. The results of these studies most often showed that the activities, questions, or objectives in reading manuals and workbooks designed to develop pupils' comprehension were at the literal or factual level of comprehension (Bartholome, 1968; Cooke, 1970; Hatcher, 1971; Marksberry, McCarter and Noyce, 1971; Mueller, 1972).

Many different classifications of comprehension skills appeared in the literature during this time. A selection of these is noted in Figure 6.1.

The information presented in Figure 6.1 clearly shows that there were differences as well as similarities in the terminology used by reading authorities in their description of comprehension. In 1964 Russell attempted to differentiate the meaning of the terms "meaning," "comprehension" and "interpretation." Tinker and McCullough (1968) also tried to sort out the terms "comprehension" and "interpretation," but Nila Banton Smith (1969) succinctly summed up the situation in her article "The Many Faces of Reading Comprehension." Smith drew attention to the present strong movement in education toward the development of inquiry and felt that "we must find out how better to use the content of reading in developing the ability to think" (p. 251). The purpose of Smith's article

LEVELS	SKILLS
Comprehension	answers to questions
Critical	main ideas, sequence
Remembering	details, grasping organization
Creative	following directions
(Harris, 1956)	
	main idea, details, answering questions, summarizing, generalizing, following directions, predicting outcomes, evaluating critically, reading graphs, tables
(DeBoer, 1960)	
Factual	recall of items, concepts
Organization	sequence, classification, summarizing, relationships
Evaluation	relevance of content, adequacy, fact from opinion
Interpretation	main idea, generalization, predicting, opinion
Appreciation	sensory impression, humor, plot, characterization
(Bond, 1960)	
	details, facts, main ideas (stated and not stated) sequence (time, place) following directions, fact and opinion, inferring cause-effect relations, predicting outcomes, noting mood, author's intent, comparison/contrast, drawing conclusions, making generalizations, skimming [sequenced]
(Smith, 1960)	
Organizational	details, main ideas
Inferencing	
Evaluation	
Application	problem-solving, integration of concepts and attitudes
(Huus, 1962)	
Literal	primary direct meaning
Interpretation	now more frequently used than term comprehension. Includes skills necessary in getting at the deeper meanings in addition to those of literal comprehension, generalizing, cause and effect relations, anticipating, significance of statements, making comparisons, identification of author's purpose, imagery, emotional reaction

LEVELS	SKILLS
Critical	term currently in high favor. Excludes literal, embraces skills of interpretation, as well as many study skills
(Smith, 1963)	
Literal	
Implied	
Evaluation	
Utilization	
(Spache, 1963)	
Factual	
Conceptual	synthesis, generalizations
Associational	application of concepts
(Herber, 1965)	
Literal	details, key words, relationships of ideas within different patterns of writing sequence - time, space, logic, cause-effect, generalizations
Interpretative	stated and implied meanings. implied - including all of the above
Critical	judging the veracity and truthfulness of statements, suspending judgment, aware of authors' intent, following organization
Assimilation	synthesis
Creative	forms new ideas and reorganizes old ideas
(Andersen and Robinson, 1966)	
Literal	
Interpretation	
Critical	
Creative	
(Smith, 1969)	
Literal Reorganizational Inferential Evaluative Appreciative	skills are presented within each level. For a complete listing see appendix.
(Barrett, 1967, 1968)	
Literal Inferential Evaluation Appreciation	same skills as those in Barrett's Taxonomy put forth in 1967, 1968; in appendix
(Smith and Barrett, 1974)	
Literal	word meanings, sentence meanings, paragraph and larger unit meanings
Interpretative	drawing conclusions, generalizing, aware of author's purpose accuracy, fact/opinion, persuasion
(Karlin, 1975	

Figure 6.1. Levels and skills of reading comprehension suggested by reading authorities

was to "attempt to sort out and label thinking skills" (p. 252). Smith observed that the term 'comprehension' had emerged around 1925 and that since then it had been used indiscriminately; that, in general, it had meant "literal comprehension." At present, Smith maintained comprehension seemed to have developed many faces. "We hear of literal comprehension, factual reading, cloze reading, inferences, interpretation, critical reading, creative reading, etc., etc. . . . Comprehension had, indeed, become a many splendored thing" (Smith, 1969, p. 253). Smith felt that the term 'inference' was too broad (earlier noted by Hulocks, 1964) and that the phrase 'critical reading' had become a sort of catch slogan often used to include all of the thinking skills.

As regards reading comprehension instruction the most frequent recommendations in the literature involved the use of questioning to stimulate higher-levels of cognition and a systematic approach to teaching reading skills. A noteworthy characteristic of the sixtieth yearbook of the N.S.S.E., for example, was its emphasis on continuous sequential reading instruction. In that yearbook Herrick (1961) reported that an examination of statements he had received from reading specialists revealed:

> General agreement that it is possible to distinguish among (a) categories of skills and habits of reading, (b) the varieties of reading materials designed to achieve reading skills, and (c) the instructional methods used to develop reading skills . . . that basal reading materials should help foster the continuity in reading development. . . . Frequently, this is called "systematic" development of the reading program. (pp. 165-166)

Herrick (1961) went on to define basal reading instruction as "that instruction which is concerned with all the fundamental habits, attitudes and skills which are essential to effective silent and oral reading" (p. 166) noting that by definition, therefore, basal reading materials were those materials designed to develop these habits and skills. In the remainder of the yearbook attention was devoted to the systematic reading instruction of reading skills where the basal reader was often considered to be the core of a school's reading program.

Many educators, however, voiced concern about the nature of reading comprehension instruction. As a result of a major survey of classroom reading instruction in the United States, Austin and Morrison (1963) concluded that reading instruction was failing to improve students' reading comprehension because teachers overrelied on the guidebooks accompanying basal readers which did not contain sufficient guidance for developing reading comprehension skills. Singer (1971) suggested that until comprehensive data collected over a long period had been obtained on the development of the hierarchical structure associated with reading the teacher would have to fill in the knowledge gaps with a curriculum based on logical analysis and empirical data. He suggested the use of Spache's set of categories as data from which to base objectives for a teaching model which could be based on a hierarchical structure such as that proposed by Gagné. Singer also suggested that Barrett's taxonomy could also be used with the models of Gagné and Spache in the formulation of a hierarchically structured comprehensive curriculum in reading.

Reading--an information-processing activity. During the sixties reading came to be viewed as an information-processing activity influenced by the work of those in communication theory and artificial intelligence. Shannon and Weaver (1949) developed a model for electronic communication which psychologists found useful in describing human communication. McCreary and Surkan (1965) felt that Shannon and Weaver's work could be directly applied to reading which was a specific form of communication. They compared reading to a communications system where the text served as the source of information, the mind the information channel, and human memory the storage unit. Processing print in their model involved skimming, selecting, restating, interpreting, and transferring.

The efforts of Newell, Simon and Shaw (1958) are generally recognized as being seminal in artificial intelligence (Anderson and Bower, 1973). They set forth the elements of a theory of human problem-solving using a computer as a simulator of human cognitive functioning. Their theory explained problem-solving behavior in terms of processes. Newell, Simon and Shaw (1958) postulated the following:

> (1) A control system consisting of a number of memories which contained symbolized information and are interconnected by various ordering relations
>
> (2) A number of primitive information processes which operate on the information in the memories
>
> (3) A perfectly definite set of rules for combining these processes into whole programs of processing. (p. 152)

Although not specifically concerned with computers Neisser (1967), a cognitive psychologist, formulated a theory of human cognitive activity where he compared the human mind to a computer. An executive monitor controlled the internal information-processing and in processing information both parallel and sequential processes took place. It was Neisser's belief that perception played a great part in human information processing and what was often perceived by humans were the distinct features of objects.

During the late sixties and early seventies several models of reading appeared which were colored by an information-processing orientation. In 1967 Goodman put forth his conceptualization of the reading process. Goodman (1967) defined reading as follows:

> Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of minimal cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's expectation. As this partial information is processed tentative decisions are made to be confirmed, rejected, or refined as reading progresses. (p. 498)

Within this brief excerpt from Goodman's description of the reading process an information-processing approach can be seen. Based on his philosophy of reading Goodman (1973) advocated that teachers help pupils develop strategies such as scanning and selection for dealing more efficiently with graphic information. Ruddell (1969) proposed a communication model of the reading process which he later refined. For Ruddell the reader moved from the morphographemic levels of language to more semantic aspects of language. The following diagram presented in Figure 6.2 highlights the "systems" and "information-processing" characteristics of his model. According to Ruddell (1969) the need for an individual to

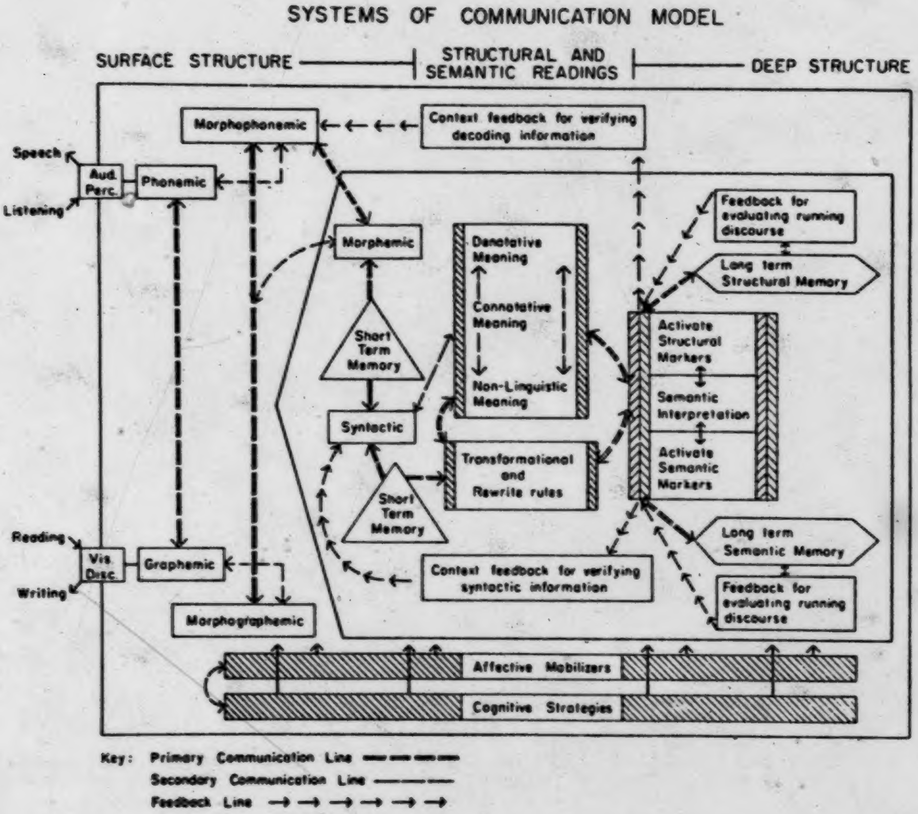
SYSTEMS OF COMMUNICATION MODEL
SURFACE STRUCTURE
STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC READINGS
DEEP STRUCTURE
Morphophonemic
Context feedback for verifying decoding information
Speech
Aud. Perc.
Listening
Phonemic
Feedback for evaluating running discourse
Long term Structural Memory
Morphemic
Denotative Meaning
Connotative Meaning
Non-Linguistic Meaning
Short Term Memory
Activate Structural Markers
Semantic Interpretation
Activate Semantic Markers
Syntactic
Transformational and Rewrite rules
Short Term Memory
Long term Semantic Memory
Reading
Vis. Disc.
Writing
Graphemic
Context feedback for verifying syntactic information
Feedback for evaluating running discourse
Morphographemic
Affective Mobilizers
Cognitive Strategies
Key: Primary Communication Line
Secondary Communication Line
Feedback Line

Figure 6.2 Ruddell's Systems of Communication Model of Reading.

develop a symbol-processing system which would provide for conceptualizing experiences was basic for language comprehension. Here Ruddell (1969) emphasized the importance of cognitive strategy and referred to Bruner's work for support. In relation to reading comprehension this meant that an individual needed to be able to evaluate the adequacy of incoming information, gather information, create hypotheses, test hypotheses, and organize and synthesize information.

Another model of reading was formulated around the same time by Smith (1971) who believed that by using distinctive features of the written language a reader reduced his uncertainty when reading. In Smith's (1971) view:

> The meaning of a sentence can not be organized in the same manner as its surface representation. The meaning of a sentence is something global, a 'state of mind,' an instantaneous set of relationships established in cognitive organization. (p. 206)

The selection of cues from print (Goodman) and role of distinctive features (Smith) certainly carry overtones of Neisser's theory.

Computer-type models of reading also appeared in this period. Venezky and Calfee (1970) presented a model of the competent reader where language was considered to be the INPUT and understanding the OUTPUT of the reading process. Central to this model was the scanning process which was directed by (1) a general knowledge of written materials and (2) the immediate knowledge obtained from the material read. Two major forms of processing were assumed to take place simultaneously: syntactic-semantic integration of what had been scanned and forward scanning to locate the next manageable unit of print. A computer model of reading was also proposed by Carver in 1971.

Influenced by these current developments in psychology and reading Latham (1973) investigated the strategies used by Canadian adult readers in processing print. Tasks were created that represented various units of language. These were then adapted to a computer program. The results of his research caused Latham to conclude that in processing text readers used both successive and simultaneous strategies--a concept first introduced by Neisser (1967) as part of his theory of human information-processing.

Reading and memory. Within cognitive science during the fifties and sixties a great deal of attention was focussed upon memory. Indeed, memory came to play a key role in every aspect of cognitive science. Within the Newell, Simon and Shaw theory of human problem-solving, for example (refer to page 197), memory had a key role.

One of the momentous pieces of work which contributed to greater interest and insight into memory during this period was by Miller (1956). Using a communication systems framework of human information-processing Miller analyzed experiments and concluded that there was a limit to the accuracy with which humans could immediately identify the magnitude of information which they had processed. This span according to Miller was in the neighborhood of seven individual items. Because of this Miller (1956) recommended

> Since the memory span is a fixed number of chunks, we can increase the number of bits of information that it contains simply by building larger and larger chunks each chunk containing more information than before. (p. 95)

The impact of Miller's work was felt in reading.

In presenting his theory of reading Goodman referred to Miller's work. Goodman (1967) maintained that efficient reading did not mean identifying all elements as one reads but rather that it involved selecting the fewest most productive cues necessary for obtaining meaning. Ruddell (1969) emphasized the importance of short and long-term memory in reading and also referred to Miller's work. In Ruddell's model of the reading process once short term memory had been activated the reader chunked language units. Venezky and Calfee (1970), too, had postulated that the reader scanned forward to locate the largest, most manageable unit of language for processing. Smith (1971) believed that because an overload on short-term memory would result if one were to read linearly every element of language the reader chunked units of language, and the role of memory in the reading process was investigated by Jackson (1970), a Canadian researcher.

In an experiment conducted by Sachs (1967) it was shown that short-term memory tended to preserve verbatim content while long-term memory tended to preserve meaning. This study was very influential in helping to orient cognitive psychology toward looking at the role of meaning. Up to the early sixties and even later much of the memory research had concentrated on isolated bits of information such as letters and words. Due also to the developments taking place in linguistics (Chomsky's transformational-theory) investigations of memory for sentences began (Miller, 1962). The central questions being explored here were "do people remember the surface representation of sentences or the propositions underlying them?" and "how and why do humans process certain information?"

Several researchers designed experiments that showed propositions were the basic units of memory (Anderson and Bower, 1973). Research showed that the more deeply a person comprehended sentences the more they were able to recall these sentences (Bobrow and Bower, 1969; Mistler-Lachman, 1974). This research, in effect, was concentrating on reading comprehension for it dealt with the processing of sentences. At this time, however, the concern of the psychologists was with how information was held in memory, with what units were processed by humans. It was almost incidental that they used print or written language as their medium for investigation. That they were, in fact, even dealing with reading comprehension also seemed to be incidental to the psychologists for they did not make use of the knowledge which had been accumulating in the field of reading since the very early 1900's.

Another central question which psychologists attempted to answer was "How is knowledge represented in memory?" Models of semantic memory began to emerge set within a computer information-processing framework. According to Tulving (1972) the term semantic memory was first used by Quillian (1966) in his doctoral dissertation. By 1969 Quillian had further developed his model of semantic memory which had a "truly seminal role in the development of recent simulation models of semantic memory" (Anderson and Bower, 1973, p. 77). Quillian was disenchanted with the orientation of transformational grammar which began with the surface structure of sentences, moved to tree structures and then to semantic interpretation. Quillian argued that linguistic analysis was semantically based and that a person brought his world knowledge to the text in order to understand it. Therefore, Quillian emphasized the notion of memory as a propositional network structure that contained world knowledge. Besides Quillian's model of semantic memory others appeared (Schank, 1972; Winograd, 1972).

Winograd's model was unique in that it tried to show how semantics was the bridge between syntax and inference but like the others it was still very much syntax based. Schank's model was felt by Anderson and Bower (1973) to be the most promising. Schank's view was that incoming sentences were processed according to the conceptual expectations of an individual. Schank tried to illustrate how higher-level contextual and world information was necessary for making sense of the language input. In this computer simulation model the basic unit of information was the proposition.

Other theorists proposed that most information was represented in memory as a complex network of propositions but did not formulate their theories within a computer framework. Kintsch (1972), for example, began to formulate a theory of text comprehension. He investigated the propositional structure of paragraphs in order to determine how knowledge was represented in memory. The work of cognitive psychologists in text or discourse analysis inevitably le them into reading comprehension for investigating what a subject retained from reading and the effect of the written structure on what was retained were core aspects of language comprehension.

Apart from theory-building in relation to the retention or comprehension of discourse and the structure of memory, research began to evolve. Kintsch and Keenan (1973) reported the results of two experiments. In the first subjects read and recalled text constructed from propositional bases without imposed time limits. In the second experiment the rate of reading was controlled. The results showed that propositions were a basic unit of memory for text. It was also found that all propositions were not equally difficult to remember; superordinate propositions were recalled better than propositions that were low in text hierarchy. Frase (1972) concluded from his research that tightly organized text where sentences were linked closely with each other was likely to result in more learning and retention of the ideas in the text. His conclusion seems valid given the outcomes of the research done by Kintsch and Keenan (1973).

Reading and learning. Within the field of psychology learning theorists carried on efforts to investigate human learning during this period. A great deal of this work was concerned with learning from text. Again this was very closely tied to reading comprehension but differed in the sense that the

the objective of learning research was to determine what sorts of techniques facilitated the retention of information read in text form. Several of the outcomes of this research had been suggested earlier in the reading field (Gray, 1980; Yoakum, 1922) but now it received support from the research of learning psychologists.

Much of this research investigated the effect of adjunct and interspersed questions in written text on memory and comprehension (Frase, 1968, 1969, 1973; Frase, Patrick and Schumer, 1970; Frase and Silbiger, 1970; Rothkopf, 1965, 1967); the effect of advanced organizers on the learning of text (Ausubel, 1960, 1961, 1963; Ausubel and Fitzgerald, 1962; Bowman, 1974; Jerrolds, 1967; Proger et al, 1973); the effect of different forms of text on learning (Rothkopf, 1965,1966; Myers, Pezdek, and Carlson, 1965); and the effect of study aids such as notetaking (Schultz and DiVesta, 1972) and underlining (Adams, 1970). For the most part the results of research supported the use of advance organizers, post-questions, notetaking, and underlining as aids for facilitating subjects' retention of information from text. Gagne's (1970) research supported the use of a superordinate context for the retention of facts from written material.

Other studies showed that the study skill of recitation aided the acquisition of facts contained in prose (Giorno, Jenkins, and Bausell, 1974; Schultz and Dangel, 1974); that graphic elaboration of text (for example, outlining) was found to be associated with superior learning from text (Yancy, 1972); and that sequenced material facilitated learning from text especially when learners had a low background for the material to be learned (Dyer and Kulhavy, 1974).

Thus by the early seventies a fairly solid body of research concerned with learning from text had accumulated and many psychologists advocated the desirability of translating these findings into both instructional strategies and text materials for use in classrooms.

Linguistics

As indicated in the discussion on "Major Curriculum Trends" the linguistic studies of Loban (1963), Strickland (1963), Hunt (1965), and O'Donnell, Griffin and Norris (1967) helped to focus attention in the 1960's on language arts generally, the relation between language and reading, and the linguistic development of children. These studies had been influenced by developments in the field of linguistics.

Toward the end of the fifties and on into the sixties a great deal of work in linguistics concentrated on analyzing and describing the English language. This branch of linguistics known as structural linguistics spawned such men as Fries (1952) who described the phonological system within the English language. Lefevre (1962, 1964) analyzed the syntactical structure of language. For him the sentence was the most important single unit of language. Lefevre described the basic sentence patterns in English and analyzed the word order within these. In Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading (1964) Lefevre criticized reading methodology for not having been concerned with language for "to comprehend printed matter the reader must perceive entire language structures as wholes" (p. xi). He particularly condemned beginning reading instruction for its teaching of words in isolation. Of course, Lefevre was not the first to espouse these principles. In 1908 Huey had observed " anguage begins with the sentence and this is the unit of language everywhere" (p. 123). And in describing the reaction of his subjects to reading tasks Huey (1908) went on to say "On the whole, the meanings seemed usually to be felt belonging to the larger wholes, to the sentences and other large units" (p. 158).

Another school of linguistics also emerged at this time known as the "transformational-generative school." The linguists belonging to this camp analyzed language to investigate the underlying processes of human language construction. The linguist responsible for the development of the linguistic theory known as transformational-generative grammar was Chomsky whose Syntactic Structures (1957) helped to transform the work of linguists.

The crux of Chomsky's theory was that a human language user could generate an infinite number of sentences and that before these sentences actually appeared they underwent a series of transformations. In undergoing these transformations certain rules were applied. Chomsky differentiated two layers of language structure--that of deep structure where the kernel of the sentence was formed and surface structure--the actual representation of the sentence. Chomsky's view that humans generated new language through the application of rules was in direct opposition to a very popular view of language operating at that time. This view commonly held by psychologists was that presented by Skinner (1957) in Verbal Behavior, a view which perceived language learning as a stimulus-response type of behavior. Reverberations from Chomsky's theory were felt in the field of psychology.

Criticism was directed at Chomsky's model, however, by linguists who felt that it was very insufficient as regards semantics and was very incomplete with its emphasis on the sentence level of language rather than larger units of discourse. Fillmore (1968) proposed a theory known as case grammar to account for the semantic relations within sentences. He rejected the notion of subject/predicate division as the framework for the underlying structure of a sentence. In place of Chomsky's idea of deep structures which were syntactical Fillmore postulated a semantic deep structure based on the notion of case relationships. According to Fillmore the deep structure of a proposition consisted of a predicate (verb) and usually one or more arguments (noun phrases); the predicate and its arguments were related together with case relations which specified the function of each argument in the action or state.

Fillmore's system was similar in many ways to the language theory of Halliday, a British linguist who brought into being the concept of language functions and pointed out the importance of the total context of a situation for language comprehension. In Halliday's view the speaker or writer had available to him a system of available options within the grammar of the language from which appropriate aspects were selected depending on the function for the language and the situational context of language. One of Halliday's most important principles was his inclusion within language functions of what he termed the textual function-connected discourse that was situationally relevant for he believed like Hasan (1968) that one aspect of this textual function of language was the establishment of cohesive relations from one sentence to another in a piece of discourse. Chafe, another American linguist, was also critical of Chomsky's theory for its missing semantic component and like Fillmore proposed a case grammar which was itself sentence-bound. Chafe(1970) stated

> Stimulated by the work of Charles Fillmore, I began to look more carefully for relations which were of truly semantic significance and which were not necessarily tied to particular surface constructions. (p. 10)

These developments in linguistics had an impact on cognitive psychology as evidenced in the computer models of semantic memory and theories of text discourse referred to earlier. And these developments in linguistics certainly had an impact on the field of reading.

Reading and linguistics. In the sixtieth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. Pooley (1961) had referred to the contributions of linguists to the teaching of reading. Pooley (1961) observed:

> Their influence at presence is only slightly felt, but it seems inevitable that the application of structural linguistics to the language arts curriculum will, in time, bring about significant changes in attitude and methods, some of which will affect reading. (p. 43)

By 1965 Pooley's prediction was coming to pass. A survey of Elementary English, a journal published by the National Council of Teachers and the Reading Teacher, a journal published by the International Reading Association, shows that beginning around 1964/1965 the literature was teeming with references to the relation between linguistics and language-reading instruction.

In Elementary English Ruddell's (1965) study which carried on from the work of Strickland appeared. Ruddell studied the effect of children's language patterns on their reading comprehension. His study drew heavily on linguistics and in reporting his research review Ruddell (1965) cited many studies which had shown that characteristics of language structure such as sentence length, the number of simple sentences, prepositions, phrase length, and style had all affected comprehension. Ruddell (1965) hypothesized

> (1) the degree of comprehension with which written passages are read is a function of the similarity of the written patterns of language structure to oral patterns of language structure used by children.
>
> (2) The comprehension scores on reading passages that utilize high frequency patterns of oral language structure will be significantly greater than the comprehension scores on reading passages that utilize low frequency patterns of oral language structure. (p. 404)

On the basis of his research Ruddell concluded that reading comprehension was a function of the similarity of patterns of language structure in the reading material to the oral patterns of language structure used by the children.

In that same issue of Elementary English Goodman (1965) reported the results of his investigation of primary children's reading where he observed that many more words were read correctly by children when they had been presented in the context of a sentence rather than in isolation. Goodman's emphasis on sentence context was in keeping with Lefevre's linguistic theory. Lefevre also contributed an article in the same journal where he advocated that a synthesis of linguistic approaches be applied to reading.

In 1965 a symposium was held at Wayne State University on the implications of psycholinguistics for reading theory and instruction. Here Goodman elaborated his idea of reading as a linguistic activity and Lefevre advocated a multidisciplinary approach to language and reading. Lefevre's (1965) philosophy of reading is revealed in the following statement:

> Reading is not reading unless it gives access to meanings. . . . Reading is first of all a language-related process. This implies the primacy of speech. . . . Our view of language and thought is basic to our definition of meaning. (pp. 291-294)

Devine (1966) having reviewed the literature and research pertaining to linguistics and reading concluded that linguistic-reading research had significance for reading in that it reminded teachers of the primacy of spoken language (supported by the Strickland and Loban studies); that it pointed to the importance of dialect in the teaching of reading (supported by the research of Goodman, Burke, Labov and Baratz); and that it might help to clarify the relationship between language structure and reading (supported by the studies of Hunt, and O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris).

Linguistic studies in the field of reading were carried out during the sixties. Louthan (1965) investigated the effect of deleting nouns, verbs, modifiers, prepositions, noun determiners and pronouns on the reading comprehension of grade seven students. The results showed that comprehension of the full passages was superior to those with the following types of deletion: random, nouns, specified verbs, and modifiers. Walmsley (1975) argued for more research on the relation of linguistic connectives to the reading process. One study had particular relevance here—that of Robertson (1967) who received an Outstanding Dissertation Award by the International Reading Association for her research. Robertson's study, carried out in Canada, was an investigation of fourth, fifth and sixth graders' comprehension of connectives. The results of Robertson's study showed that children's understanding of connectives improved from grade four to grade six and that a significant relationship existed between comprehension of connectives and sex of the students, mental age, and ability in listening.

Models and theories about reading also attempted to integrate aspects of linguistic knowledge which was being produced in this period. Ruddell's (1969) model of the reading process had incorporated linguistic variables. In discussing the decoding aspect of reading Ruddell utilized linguistic studies of grapheme-phoneme correspondences and morphographemic-morphophonemic correspondences. In examining the comprehension process Ruddell utilized information about the syntactical nature of language. A strong linguistic flavor also permeated Goodman's (1967, 1970) theory of reading. Goodman dealt with the relationships between oral and written English and the syntax of language which he felt helped to convey meaning. In discussing how the syntax of a sentence affected a reader's comprehension Goodman described sentence patterns.

That these models incorporated linguistic knowledge is not surprising given that previous reading research carried out by Goodman (1965) and Ruddell (1965), noted earlier, had integrated linguistic principles.

Psycholinguistics

Before the advent of Chomsky's theory of transformational-generative grammar, psycholinguistics had been a term in the literature which meant the description of language output in terms of phonemes, morphemes, and phrases. With the appearance of Chomsky's theory psycholinguistics became concerned with the processes underlying linguistic input. Chomsky's linguistic theory, in effect, brought about a revolution in linguistic study. According to Greene (1972)

> With Chomsky's theory of generative transformational grammar psychologists were forced to reconsider their approach to the study of language behavior, and so heralded the psycholinguistic 'revolution.' (p. 15)

A possible reason for the tremendous impact of Chomsky's theory upon psychologists was that some groundwork had already been laid within which Chomsky's theory fit rather nicely. Bartlett (1932) had argued that new information was actively incorporated into a set of organized structures called schemata;

Piaget (1926) had formulated a theory of the intellect which proposed that humans went through stages of intellectual growth where with each succeeding stage cognitive structures became more complex; and Ausubel (1965) had attempted to apply the concept of cognitive structures to learning from text. The advent of transformational grammar suggested that people store deep structures to remember text (Miller, 1962). These deep structures were a prime candidate for filling the role of Bartlett's schemata (Potts, 1975).

Psychologists such as Miller became very involved in interrelating language and thought through applying linguistic knowledge to psychology. Miller (1962) was critical of the language work that had been done to date by psychologists which for the most part had concentrated on language as an associative network of symbols. As Miller (1962) noted:

> In order to illustrate what our linguistic skills are, I need to draw on certain basic concepts of modern linguistics. Fortunately, modern linguists have a somewhat different conception of grammar--a more scientific conception--than your English teacher had years ago. (p. 322)

Miller attempted to prove the psychological reality of Chomsky's theory. In one of his experiments which focussed upon the comprehension of sentences subjects were given 18 kernel sentences and corresponding sets of these sentences which had undergone negative, passive,and negative-passive transformations. Because passive sentences took longer to process than active sentences and because passive sentences had required more transformations Miller concluded that the evidence supported the psychological reality of transformational-generative grammar.

Reading and psycholinguistics. Before long, however, conflicting evidence began to mount regarding the psychological reality of transformational-grammar. One of the most significant of these studies was by Fagan (1969), a Canadian researcher, who received an Outstanding Dissertation Award by the International Reading Association for his research. Fagan (1969) investigated the numbers and types of transformations which were contained in three basal reader series and then attempted to determine the difficulty of these structures for pupils aged nine to twelve in grades four, five, and six. He found that the number of transformations per sentence was not as significant a factor as was the type of transformation. The two transformations which causedthe greatest difficulty in reading comprehension were embedding and deletion. Fagan also found that students tended to comprehend more easily those written structures which were ordinarily found in their oral language (thus supporting the work of Ruddell and Strickland). Another key study was conducted by Cosens (1975) which was a follow-up to Fagan's study and which, as had Fagan's, won an Outstanding Dissertation Award from the International Reading Association. Cosens (1975) investigated the effect of deletion transformations on the word identification and comprehension of beginning readers. Cosens found (as had Fagan) that deletion produced sentences were more difficult for readers to comprehend than sentences without deletions.

Theories and models of reading developed in the latter part of the period had also integrated psycholinguistic principles. Ruddell (1969), for example, made this quite clear to his audience:

> The purpose of this discussion is to provide an overview of selected linguistic and psychologistic variables related to decoding and comprehending language, to briefly examine their psychological reality, and in summation to incorporate these variables into a systems of communication model. (p. 453)

From the title of Goodman's (1967) famous article on the reading process, "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game," one can see the impact of developments in psycholinguistics.

As has been illustrated in the preceding discussion many of the models of reading which emerged in this period attempted to integrate findings from the fields of linguistics, psychology, and psycholinguistics. The major purpose of these models was to investigate reading as a meaningful process. In the writings of other reading authorities during this period, a psychological, linguistic and psycholinguistic influence could be detected.

Jenkinson (1969), for example, discussed how events in allied fields might prove fruitful to explorations in reading and again in 1972 explained how language and thought were the "bedrock of reading for meaning" (p. 158). Here Jenkinson integrated Halliday's ideas of function and concepts from information-processing theory. It is interesting to note that Fagan, Robertson, Latham, and Cosens had all been students of Jenkinson and had all conducted studies which integrated developments from other disciplines, in particular developments from the field of linguistics, psycholinguistics, and psychology.

A survey of professional texts written about reading during this period also revealed that many reading educators were cognizant of the possible contributions of allied fields to reading theory, research and instruction. The work of linguists was referred to by McCullough (1962), Tinker and McCullough (1968), and Karlin (1971); the work of psychologists by McCullough (1967) and Karlin (1971); and the work of psycholinguists by Tinker and McCullough (1968), Harris (1970), and Karlin (1971).

Reading authorities suggested psychological and linguistic factors that affected reading comprehension. A brief summary of some of these factors is presented below:

Factors Affecting Reading Comprehension

I. Variables within the reader
  - (i) rate and motivation (Kress, 1968)
  - (ii) cognitive
    - (a) logical relations (Stauffer, 1965)
    - (b) setting purposes (Niles, 1963)
    - (c) interpreting (Elkind, 1974)
    - (d) concept development (Elkind, 1974)
  - (iii) affective (Athey, 1970)

II. Variables outside the reader
  - (i) the effect of text
    - (a) syntactic (Stauffer, 1965) (Ruddell, 1970)
    - (b) word meanings (Smith, 1963, Huus, 1962)
    - (c) relationships (Niles, 1963)
    - (d) pictorial cues (Smith, 1964)

In addition to integrating linguistic, psychological, and psycholinguistic aspects with reading theory and research the reading field continued to explore many aspects of reading. During the fifties a number of innovative studies took place which attempted to shed light on the reading process (Jenkinson, 1957; Piekarz, 1954; Sochor, 1952; Swain, 1953). Ironically these researchers used larger pieces of text than just individual sentences and yet, the emphasis on using larger context than sentences was not recommended in linguistics until the late sixties. Also, the recommendation for investigating the processes employed by subjects when reading or analyzing text did not enter the field of psychology until approximately the late sixties (Rothkopf, 1972).

In 1968 Davis carried out another factor analytic study of reading comprehension. Again the results showed that reading comprehension was made up of various skills that included word meanings, inferring, understanding explicit content, weaving ideas together, recognizing the author's tone, mood, and purpose, identifying the author's literary techniques, and following the structure of the text. This contributed further support for the view that reading and reading comprehension involved many skills as did Chapman's (1973) research which investigated and supported the view that reading comprehension was hierarchical.

Summary

Due to the integration of developments in psychology, linguistics, and psycholinguistics by those in the field of reading throughout this period, reading came to be viewed as a cognitive/problem-solving activity, as an information-processing activity, and as a linguistic and psycholinguistic activity. Reading was also viewed from a completely different orientation--

as a cognitive/skills activity.

An emphasis on reading comprehension skills permeated the literature as did a concern for the many factors that affected comprehension. Stern (1971) using the techniques of philosophical analysis actually found that the term 'comprehension' as it was used by reading methodologists had at least four meanings: (1) as degrees or levels of grasping the meaning on the printed page, (2) as a set of skills and abilities that could be measured, (3) as grasping the meanings of various linguistic units, and (4) as a process equivalent to thinking or understanding. We have seen evidence of all of these meanings.

Reading comprehension research carried out by reading educators had also been influenced by linguistics, psychology, and psycholinguistics. On the other hand it appears (based on the literature) that psychologists did not integrate information produced in the field of reading. By the early 1970's, in fact, much of the psychological research which began with investigating the question of "how knowledge is represented in memory" involved the retention of information from text (or discourse) which lead psychologists into using reading comprehension as a source of data for determining more about human cognition.

Research in reading comprehension instruction was very limited although research in learning from text did have implications for reading comprehension instruction and instructional materials. As noted by Harris (1970) the research involving the comparison of different instructional programs for teaching reading is very difficult to conduct and evaluate as it requires complex teaching materials, commitment, teacher-pupil interaction, and such a matrix of variables that challenges even the most sophisticated and advanced research design. Harris (1970) observed:

> There is a dearth of studies on the techniques to improve the basic aspects of comprehension such as grasp of the main idea and its supporting facts, and on ways to improve the more complex aspects of interpretation involving inferential processes often associated with thinking. . . . This is not surprising in view of the state of knowledge regarding concept attainment and reasoning. . . . It is clear, however, that much more is known about the characteristics of reading comprehension and interpretative processes than about their operation or what can be done to improve them. (pp. 1090-1091)

Suggestions for reading comprehension instruction, however, were frequently found in the professional literature of the reading field. Most often reading educators seemed to agree that questioning, discussion, developing pupils' backgrounds of information, setting purposes, giving systematic instruction in relation to specific skills, and giving directed reading-thinking activities were techniques for the classroom teacher to use.

Developments in Canadian Educational History: 1949 to 1974

As a result of World War II Canadian education was examined. Several commissions were established to study education (British Columbia, 1943; Manitoba and Saskatchewan, 1943). Traditional values for education, however, remained the most socially acceptable. In Alberta, for example, the terminology of progressive education was "consciously purged from the literature" (Patterson, 1970, p. 382).

Canada's pace of growth and development quickened in the 1950's accompanied by growing prosperity and an increase in population (Stevenson, 1970). Educational interest and reform continued evidenced by the number of Royal Commissions on Education, the first Canadian Conference on Education, and a growing number of books dealing with Canadian education (Katz, 1956; Neatby, 1953; Phillips, 1957; St. John Bascom, 1958). Johnson (1968) referred to this period as being characterized by a reaction to progressivism. Regardless of its actual influence Neatby (1953) attacked the emphasis on progressivism which she assumed existed from pursuing educational literature. In turn, she was criticized for her lack of scientific data and heavy bias (Paton, 1954).

There was public criticism of education in the fifties. Campbell (1952) observed that the current criticisms of the weaknesses in the schools centered around their inadequate teaching of the basics and a neglect of moral and ethical teaching. He further observed that there was a present conflict in Canadian education between classical or traditional views of the role of education and the practical. This lack of a unitary Canadian educational philosophy was also observed by many others (Lower, 1956; Paton, 1954; St. John Bascom, 1958; and Swift, 1958).

Swift (1958) in his Quance Lecture entitled "Trends in Canadian Education" suggested that perhaps the period could be described as one of "eclecticism." He noted that the impact of the activity movement had been over by 1948 and that at present there appeared to be a heightened interest in formal content.

Most schools continued to rely on a mixture of deductive and Socratic techniques and a well-worn curriculum (Stevenson, 1970).

During the 1960's Canada's prosperity grew as did technological advances. The period was marked by the advent of computers, the writings of Marshall McLuhan, and mergers between Canadian and American publishing companies. It was a period characterized by rising criticism of education and student unrest (Stevenson, 1970). The teacher shortage was over and the post war baby boom had hit the schools resulting in expanded facilities and services. According to Scarfe (1962) the period was also characterized by a growing sense of nationalism. This seems evident from such sources as Oimet's address to the annual convention of the Canadian Education Association in 1966 where he voiced his concern over the need to develop national consciousness through education. During this period several textbook series seemed to reflect this nationalistic sense.

Lawr and Gidney (1973) described the sixties as a period of educational change where progressivism was reaffirmed. This was also Quick's conclusion having surveyed the geography and history curricula in Ontario's elementary schools from 1846 to 1966. Quick (1967) found that the curriculum in the sixties was oriented toward inquiry and problem-solving. Again, this was partly due to American influences.

During the sixties in the United States an interest in formal content and problem-solving had occurred partly due to the writings of Bruner and to other events described earlier. These ideas could also be seen in the writings of Canadian educators at this time. Paton (1965) noted that "Bruner's ideas of basic understandings or structure in a subject area had been applied with some success in the new mathematics and new physics" (p. 41) and like Scarfe (1962) maintained that the important role for the Canadian schools was to develop the power of individual independent thought. This was still an unresolved dilemma in Canadian education in 1967 according to Paton who referred to cognitive studies of psychologists such as Guilford, Bruner, Ryle, and Bartlett as rationale for promoting cognitive development in Canadian schools. In Johnson's opinion the events taking place were a return to a structure of learning based more on the ideas of scholars in a particular discipline than on philosophies of education or the ideas of child psychology, that "it represents a trend away from the child-centered curriculum to the subject-centered curriculum" (Johnson, 1968, p. 9). He listed a number of trends in Canadian education: (1) continuous progress; (2) attention to individual differences; (3) more advanced subject matter being placed in elementary grades; (4) team teaching; (5) open-area schools, and (6) more specialist training of teachers. In his address on Canadian curriculum in 1970 Janzen described the sixties as "one of the most significant periods of educational change in Canada" (p. 15), and noted that there had been a significant trend away from memorization. Janzen further observed that criticisms directed toward Canadian education had focussed on a failure to teach fundamental subjects well, failure to challenge gifted children, a decline in school discipline, and a neglect to teach moral and spiritual values.

Canadian reading educators were certainly aware of developments occurring in the field of reading during this period. Many Canadians had studied reading at American universities as graduate programs in reading were not prevalent at Canadian universities. Before long, however, graduate programs in reading were established at Canadian universities, reading research began to be produced, and Canadian educators began making their contributions to the growing knowledge about reading.

In 1955 the first Canadian conference on reading was held where comprehension was the theme. The Fourth Annual Conference of the International Reading Association (centered in the United States) was held in Toronto and several Canadians were speakers at that conference including Frederick Deverell, Harold Covell, and Dorothy Lampard.

Reading was undoubtedly gathering strength as a discipline in Canada or Lampard and Jenkinson (1959) could not have written "What's Happening in Reading in Canada?" Their effort was "an attempt to show how the reading field in all areas [of Canada] was beginning to emerge as an educational entity" (p. 249). The authors observed that since the war there had been an emerging sense of nationalism which had resulted in a "demand for reading texts with a Canadian background" (Lampard and Jenkinson, 1959, p. 250).

In 1961 Covell wrote an article in the Journal of Education for British Columbia where he traced historically events in reading which led him to conclude there was an increasing emphasis on comprehension. His analysis led him to predict that "manuals will reflect the broader understanding of the nature of the reading act . . . questions asked by teachers will require exercise of higher mental processes" (Covell, 1961, p. 17). Covell also predicted that the relationship of reading to the other language arts would find expression in the manuals accompanying readers.

A perusal of Deverell's Canadian Bibliography of Reading and Literature Instruction (1963, 1968) provides the proof of the growing evolution of the reading field in Canada and the awareness of Canadian educators with developments in reading, language, linguistics, psychology, and psycholinguistics. In addition, between 1967 and 1975 several Canadians carried out reading research. As noted earlier in the chapter, several of these researchers (Cosens, 1975; Fagan, 1969; Jackson, 1971; Latham, 1973; Rawson, 1969; Robertson, 1969; and Walker, 1973) had received Outstanding Dissertations of the International Reading Association and all had been under the supervision of Marion Jenkinson at the University of Alberta. Was there an awareness, however, of current developments by those who authored Canadian elementary reading series published during this period?

Interrelation between Characteristics of the Reading Series and Developments in the Field of Reading and Other Fields

Two of the series selected from this period, Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading, were published between 1946 and 1950. The two remaining series studied were the Canadian Ginn Basic reading series and the Young Canada Readers published between 1961 and 1966. The publication date of these series produces a natural time division in this period. Therefore, the reading theory and reading comprehension methodology in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading is described first. Following the description of each of these characteristics an analysis is made of the relationship between aspects of these characteristics and developments in the field of reading and other related fields. This format is then repeated with respect to Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers.

Reading Theory in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading

In both Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading reading was viewed primarily as a silent and meaningful process although very little was explicitly stated about the reading process. In Canadian Reading Development the program's goals of reading were to broaden interests, enrich experiences and elevate tastes, to develop reading skills and abilities--especially those which would extend word recognition and word-analysis techniques, enlarge meaning vocabulary, develop power of comprehension and critical reflection, develop skill in locating information, increase speed, and promote purposeful oral reading (McIntosh, 1946). This suggested that the idea of reading as a skills activity was gathering force in reading series which is further supported by the chart of reading skills contained in the series. And if the teacher was "dismayed by the length of the list she should realize that efficient reading is an extremely complex mental and physiological process" (McIntosh, 1946, p. xxxi).

Unlike the authors of Canadian Reading Development the Canadian authors of Highroads to Reading emphasized the importance of reading skills maintaining that not skills but the "thoughts and ideas contained in the matter the child reads are the important things" (Watson, Bates, and Boyle, 1950, p. 3). This did not mean that reading skills were totally neglected for the purpose of the accompanying workbook was to strengthen reading skills particularly those pertaining to reading comprehension.

There was evidence in both series of a concern for relating reading to knowledge of child development. For example, the authors of Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading considered developing children's reading interests to be of paramount importance. In Canadian Reading Development individual differences and the need to adjust reading to the level of a child's development were stressed.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in the Field of Reading

Many of the developments in reading theory and research which took place between 1935 and 1946 were described in the previous chapter which dealt with the period 1923-1949. As noted therein, these developments could not have been integrated within Canadian elementary reading series during this time as no new series were published between 1935 and 1946. The question asked in Chapter Five was whether the developments which occurred between 1935 and 1946 would show up in the next series published between 1946-1950. According to the description of reading theory in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading given above it seems that they have.

The broader definition of reading and aims or objectives of reading stated in the thirty-sixth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. were reflected in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading. The emphasis given this in both series may have also been partly due to the results of reading research carried out around this time which had highlighted the importance of reading interests to reading comprehension (Gray and Holmes, 1939).

The view of reading as a silent, thought-getting process in these series had been a concept in the professional literature of the reading field between 1935 and 1946. The presence of an attempt to delineate comprehension skills and of relating reading to child development in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading also reflected the concerns of reading authorities between 1935 and 1946. The presence of a chart listing reading comprehension skills in Canadian Reading Development may even have been partly due to the results of factor-analytic research carried out at this time by investigators such as Langsam (1941) and Davis (1941).

Developments in the field of reading continued between 1946 and 1949 and these, too, were described in the previous chapter. In particular, the concept of reading as a cognitive activity was reinforced by reading authorities, comprehension skills became more delineated with several reading authorities proposing classification schemes (Durrell, 1949; Gates, 1947; Russell, 1949), and the concept of reading and child development was more heavily stressed than ever before (Russell, 1949). Basically these concepts were no different from those which characterized the years between 1935 and 1946--what did differ was the degree of emphasis accorded them and this emphasis was not present either in Canadian Reading Development or Highroads to Reading.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in Other Fields

The concept of relating reading to child development found in both Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading was certainly in keeping with the tenor of the times. Psychological studies of child development had been conducted since the 1920's and the essence of the progressive philosophy, which was very much alive in the thirties and early forties, was its child-centered approach to education. The emphasis in the series on developing children's interests may also have been due to the influence of progressivism. Traces of the scientific philosophy, however, could also be discerned in the objectives for reading and reading instruction contained in the series. Additional traces of the influences of developments in reading and other fields could be seen in the reading comprehension methodology found in both series.

Methodology in Canadian Reading Development. With each reader selection in Canadian Reading Development a lesson format was to be used which did not vary in structure. First the teacher was to develop relevant background experiences and information in relation to the story, then pupils were to be motivated to read which was followed by a discussion of the content ending with activities and skill development exercises which were to be done by the pupils. From this section the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities designed to improve reading comprehension were coded. In addition, skill exercises in the accompanying workbooks designed to be used in conjunction with particular reader selections were recorded. Table 6.1 shows the frequency or number of codings for each aspect of the reading comprehension methodology in Canadian Reading Development and the percentage of that methodology which developed those reading comprehension skills designated in Barrett's taxonomy.

It is evident in Table 6.1 that the number of purposes, directives, and skill exercises have increased drastically in this series. Questions are still the major strategy used for developing comprehension and these have also increased as have the number of activities. The most popular reading skill served by the methodology was details which comprised 42.4% of the total methodology, followed by cause-effect relationships comprising 20.9%. Thus the remaining percentage was distributed among twenty categories which indicates that very little emphasis was placed on the other skill areas. Within literal and inferential levels of comprehension

Table 6.1

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Canadian Reading Development
Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

Percentage of methodology related to skills

	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	136	55.1	2.2		4.4	26.5	2.2	0.7		0.7								1.5			0.7	2.2	3.7	99.9
	5	166	60.2	0.6		2.4	24.1	1.2	4.2						0.6			0.6		1.8	1.2		0.6	2.4	99.9
	6	139	45.3	3.6	2.2	4.3	15.8	3.6	2.9						1.4		0.7			0.7		1.4	0.7	17.3	99.9
	Sum	441	54.0	2.0	0.7	3.6	22.2	2.3	2.7		0.2				0.7		0.2	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.1	7.5	100.0
Directives	4	118	36.4	1.7	1.7	4.2	33.1	7.6	0.8	0.8					0.8			0.8	2.5	0.8	1.7	5.9	0.8		99.6
	5	16	37.5			6.3	6.3	18.8	6.3									6.3		6.3	6.3		6.3		100.4
	6	37	18.9		8.1	8.1	21.6	16.2		2.7					2.7					2.7		16.2	2.7		99.9
	Sum	171	32.7	1.2	2.9	5.3	18.1	10.5	1.2	1.2					1.2			1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	7.6	1.8		100.3
Questions	4	352	54.0	0.6		4.0	30.1	2.6	1.1						0.6		0.9		0.9	1.7	2.0			0.9	99.4
	5	427	48.0	0.7	0.5	3.7	22.7	4.7	1.9	1.4					1.2		0.7	0.5	2.1	1.4	3.7	0.7	0.5	5.6	100.0
	6	625	35.2	0.8	0.5	7.5	21.4	5.9	4.5	1.6			0.3		0.8	0.8	1.1	2.2	2.9	1.0	3.2	1.4	0.3	8.5	99.9
	Sum	1404	43.8	0.7	0.4	5.5	24.0	4.7	2.8	1.1			0.1		0.9	0.4	0.9	1.1	2.1	1.3	3.1	0.9	0.3	5.9	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	36	30.6	13.9	13.9		16.7			2.8	2.8	8.3										5.6	5.6		100.2
	5	62	43.5	4.8	8.1	4.8	6.5	3.2		6.5		4.8		3.2								11.3		3.2	99.9
	6	142	31.7	15.5	8.5	4.9	13.4	0.7	1.4	1.4	3.5	4.9		1.4		0.7	1.4	0.7	2.8		1.4	3.5	0.7	1.4	99.9
	Sum	240	34.6	12.5	9.2	4.2	12.1	1.3	0.8	2.9	2.5	5.4		1.7		0.4	0.8	0.4	1.7		0.8	5.8	1.3	1.7	100.1
Activities	4	20	5.0		5.0														5.0	5.0			80.0		100.0
	5	28	3.6			7.1			3.6	3.6										3.6			78.6		100.1
	6	24	12.5			4.2												4.2		4.2			75.0		100.1
	Sum	72	6.9		1.4	4.2			1.4	1.4								1.4	1.4	4.2			77.8		100.1
Skill Exercises (W)	4	45	48.9	22.2	4.4	4.4	6.7		2.2	2.2							2.2					2.2	2.2	2.2	99.8
	5	79	35.4	16.5	7.6	3.8	7.6	1.3	3.8	2.5		7.6					3.8		2.5			5.1	1.3	1.3	100.1
	6	89	33.7	14.6	4.5	5.6	10.1	5.6	1.1	4.5	1.1	3.4		2.2			1.1	1.1				7.9	3.4	1.1	99.9
	Sum	213	37.6	16.9	5.6	4.2	8.5	2.8	2.3	3.3	0.5	4.2		0.9			2.3	0.5	0.9			5.6	2.3	1.4	99.8
	Total	2541	42.4	3.4	1.9	4.9	20.5	4.1	2.4	1.3	0.3	0.9	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.9	1.7	1.1	2.0	2.1	3.0	4.8	100.1

predicting, sequence, main ideas, and figurative language were the most neglected. These, however, were not as neglected as those skills of summarizing, synthesizing, classifying, and outlining, and the skills belonging to the evaluation category of reality-fantasy, fact/opinion, adequacy-validity, and appropriateness. In the appreciation level the most neglected was that of emotional response.

A breakdown of the methodology by level of reading comprehension given in Table 6.2 shows that the literal level of comprehension received the most emphasis representing 53.5% of the methodology coded. Although the inferential per se comprised 27.7% when grouped with the remaining levels it can be said to represent 41.7%. However, the table does highlight the absence of methodology designed to develop the evaluation, reorganization, and appreciation levels of comprehension taken from Barrett.

The majority of activities coded in the appreciation level as seen in Table 6.1 were from the imagery category. Apart from this it was apparent that the number and variety of activities had grown. Murals, having visitors to the classroom, construction projects, study of community pastimes, collections of specimens of nature, poetry, library work, discussions, model-making, exhibits, and excursions illustrate the type and range of activities.

General methodological principles in Canadian Reading Development included procedures for grouping, guidelines for providing pupils with interesting reading experiences, recommendations for using group projects, and creating problem-solving situations

Table 6.2

Reading Comprehension Methodology in *Canadian Reading Development*
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	136	76.5	14.7	0.7	1.5	2.9	3.7	100.0
	5	166	83.1	9.6		1.2	3.6	2.4	99.9
	6	139	66.2	11.5		2.2	2.9	17.3	100.1
	Sum	441	75.7	11.8	0.2	1.6	3.2	7.5	100.0
Directives	4	118	61.0	25.4		4.2	9.3		99.9
	5	16	37.5	37.5		6.3	18.8		100.1
	6	37	40.5	35.1		2.7	21.6		99.9
	Sum	171	54.4	28.7		4.1	12.9		100.1
Questions	4	352	68.5	23.9		2.3	3.7	1.7	100.1
	5	427	51.8	31.9		4.4	6.3	5.6	100.0
	6	625	38.6	38.9	0.3	7.8	5.9	8.5	100.0
	Sum	1404	50.1	33.0	0.1	5.4	5.5	5.9	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	36	38.9	38.9	11.1		11.1		100.0
	5	62	46.8	30.6	8.1		11.3	3.2	100.0
	6	142	46.5	31.0	9.9	5.6	5.6	1.4	100.0
	Sum	240	45.4	32.1	9.6	3.3	7.9	1.7	100.0
Activities	4	20	10.0			5.0	85.0		100.0
	5	28	7.1	10.7			82.1		99.9
	6	24	12.5	4.2		4.2	79.2		100.1
	Sum	72	9.7	5.6		2.8	81.9		100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4	45	57.8	33.3		2.2	4.4	2.2	99.9
	5	79	54.4	24.1	7.6	6.3	6.3	1.3	100.0
	6	89	49.4	29.2	6.7	2.2	11.2	1.1	99.3
	Sum	213	53.1	28.2	5.6	3.8	8.0	1.4	100.1
	Total	2541	53.5	27.7	1.5	4.3	8.2	4.8	100.0

for which the child could discover solutions.

Relation between theory and methodology in Canadian Reading Development. More than with the immediately preceding reading series there seemed to be an inconsistency between the view and goals of reading that formed the foundation of Canadian Reading Development and the actual methodology presented in relation to reading comprehension. The authors had described reading as a thinking process and had included critical reading as a category of reading comprehension--yet the literal level of reading comprehension (53.5%) was required of the student far more than either the inferential (27.7%) or evaluative (4.3%). And, for the most part, it was the skill of details that was demanded rather than skills such as predicting outcomes, understanding figurative language or sequence. In addition, the authors had maintained that the development of literary appreciation was a primary objective of the series but the appreciation level of reading comprehension (8.2%) certainly received only minimal attention.

Relation between curriculum content and method in Canadian Reading Development. A chart of the reading skills and abilities contained in each level of Canadian Reading Development was presented at the beginning of the manual accompanying the reader for each grade. Included here were the skills of main ideas, comparisons, drawing conclusions, forming sensory impressions, organizational skills of outlining, sequence, summarizing, and skills pertaining to the location of information. Many of these were found by the writer only to a very minimal degree which suggests an inconsistency between the curriculum content stated as being developed by the program's reading methodology and the actual methodology.

Most of the time, however, the writer agreed with the authors' designation of a reading comprehension skill which was developed by a particular aspect of the reading methodology.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Canadian Reading Development. Although methodology received attention in *Canadian Reading Development* the content of the readers still remained a significant concern. Interest appeal, high literary standards, a wide range of literary types, correlation of content with other subject areas, and content of a Canadian orientation represented the criteria for the selection of reader content. The reader selections were arranged in units around a theme, continuing the trend begun in the series published around 1932-1934. Table 6.3 contains the frequency and percentage of the type of reader content found in the *Canadian Reading Development*.

Poetry and prose categories of animal, nature, and realistic experiences that happened to children which involved interpersonal relations with their peers, adults or animals were the three most predominant categories when content of the series as a whole is considered. Next in importance were stories about Canadian life--in fourth position followed by an equal proportion of moralistic and geographical stories. Often these latter stories depicted customs of people in different lands portrayed through a

Table 6.3

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in Canadian Reading Development

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	18	34.6	19	35.8	26	38.2	63	36.4
Prose:								
Animals/nature	11	21.2	3	5.7	11	16.2	25	14.5
Real./Interper.	10	19.2	3	15.1	5	7.4	23	13.3
Morals/values	5	9.6	9	17.0	6	8.8	20	11.8
Canadian life	6	11.5	6	11.3	8	11.8	20	11.6
Geography	5	9.6	8	15.1	2	2.9	15	8.7
Adventure	1	1.9	4	7.5	5	7.4	10	5.8
Historical	1	1.9	2	3.7	6	8.8	9	5.2
Fables/tales	2	3.8	2	3.7	4	5.9	8	4.6
Biography	2	3.8	3	5.7	2	2.9	7	4.0
Technological	0	0.0	2	3.7	4	5.9	6	3.5
Fantasy	2	3.8	0	0.0	3	4.4	5	2.9
Myths/legends	1	1.9	3	5.7	1	1.5	5	2.9
Drama	1	1.9	1	1.9	2	2.9	4	2.3
Humour/nonsense	0	0.0	1	1.9	2	2.9	3	1.7
Science	0	0.0	1	1.9	1	1.5	2	1.2
Religious	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.6
Health	1	1.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.6
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.5	1	0.6
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

2

story format.

In this series the percentage of poetry, historical selections, and stories about modern technology increased from grades four to six, while realistic content, geographical, and moralistic stories decreased. Certain peculiarities are also evident. For example, animal and nature stories dropped to a very low percentage in book five while remaining relatively high in books four and six.

Myths and legends were very few which when combined with fables and folktales, however, presents a somewhat different picture, changing to a total percentage of 7.5 which places this combined category as sixth in order of frequency. Religious stories were very few as were selections dealing with science, sports, health or humour.

Without doubt the percentage of Canadian content was greater in this series than ever before. The frequency and percentage of Canadian content in the prose selections of each reader is shown below:

	No. Prose Selections	Canadian Content Frequency	Canadian Content Percentage
Reader 4	33	13	39.3
Reader 5	32	14	43.7
Reader 6	40	18	45.0
Total	105	45	42.8

From reading the content this Canadian orientation seemed to stand out even more partly because of the noticeable threads running through the stories.

Many of the stories take place in different parts of Canada--from a family scene in the Atlantic which depicts the rough and hardy fisherman's life, to a cattle ranch in British Columbia where immigrants to Canada have begun a new living. Often the plight of the immigrant is highlighted. For example, one finds such statements as "he had worked hard to become a Canadian" (Berni, 1946, p. 24). This illustrates as well another theme that runs throughout--that of hard work and working cooperatively with one's neighbours or family. Thrift is seen over and over in the actions of characters like Pablo and Menino who must earn money to obtain their treasure. They earn the money which has to be used instead to help support their families. These boys and others do not hesitate when this decision needs to be made--they have virtuous characteristics. In fact, the idea of boys becoming men and young adults is a fairly strong theme in the reader selections. In a story of Canadian life in the north, for example, the author writes "not only had his father trusted him with a man-sized job for the first time but . . ." (Stefansson, 1946, p. 242) and, "still he stuck to it like a man" (Stefansson, 1946, p. 255).

Mostly through the biographies and interpersonal stories character qualities of courage, hard work, cooperation, sacrifice, lack of self interest, and good citizenship come through as worthwhile values. Not all of these stories were written in narrative form. A goodly number were written descriptively for the purpose of conveying information. The frequency and percentage of the written forms found in the reader selections are presented in Table 6.4

Table 6.4

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Canadian Reading Development

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	30	57.7	29	54.7	29	42.6	88	50.1
Descriptive/ Informational	15	28.8	16	30.2	27	39.7	58	33.5
Expository	2	3.8	6	11.3	2	2.9	10	5.8
Literary - Poetry	18	34.6	19	35.8	26	38.2	63	36.4
- Drama	1	1.9	1	1.9	2	2.9	4	2.3
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Upon comparing the information in Table 6.4 with that in preceding tables an increase in descriptive-informational writing can be discerned.

The reading comprehension methodology that accompanied each reader selection was considered appropriate by the writer. Also, based on the information presented in Tables 6.3 and 6.4 and the writer's qualitative judgment of the series the writer concluded that a fairly consistent relation existed between the type and form of reader content and the reading comprehension methodology. The authors of Canadian Reading Development had stated that literary appreciation was a goal of their series and that a wide range of content had, therefore, been included which was of a high literary quality, which was Canadian in orientation, and which could be easily correlated with other subject areas. The frequency of poetry, animal/nature, realistic/interpersonal, geographical, and Canadian life selections and the frequency of differing types of content (narrative - 50%; descriptive-informational - 38%; expository - 5%; literary - 38%) lends support to the writer's conclusion.

Methodology in Highroads to Reading. This edition of Highroads concentrated more on reading comprehension methodology than had its predecessor, the 1934/1935 series. The authors believed that pupils should develop reading flexibility, should adjust their reading to the nature of the material and their purpose for reading it which meant that pupils needed instruction in such skills as making judgments, drawing conclusions, and making inferences.

Unlike Canadian Reading Development there was no chart of reading skills or exercises in the manual designated as developing a specific skill of reading comprehension. Instead, objectives for reading instruction were given at the beginning of each unit for the development of such reading skills as finding the main idea, noting details, recognizing sequence, making comparisons, seeing cause and effect relations, making inferences, making judgments, drawing conclusions, predicting outcomes, imagery, and understanding literary forms. The authors also believed that pupils needed to develop study and reference skills such as using a table of contents, index, skimming, selecting and evaluating, organizing, outlining, and summarizing.

In Highroads to Reading a lesson format similar to that in Canadian Reading Development was provided for the teacher to use when teaching a reader selection. This consisted of steps which followed the sequence of preparing for reading, guided reading, discussion of the reading, related activities and skill exercises. From this section the reading comprehension methodology was coded. The results of the coding are presented in Table 6.5 which shows the frequency of coding for each aspect of the methodology and the percentage of the methodology which was related to reading comprehension skills.

There are fewer purposes, directives, questions, activities, and skill exercises in this series than there were in the Canadian Reading Development although these were still more numerous than had been in series from the previous period. The majority of skill development exercises were presented within the workbook indicating that this was the major instrument used to fulfill the skill component of the program. As with the previous reading program activities were mostly in the appreciative level and were represented by the category of imagery.

Details were most often demanded by the methodology followed by cause-effect relationships, reaction to the author's use of language, and compare/contrast. These accounted for 66% of the methodology leaving 34% to be distributed among the remaining 17 skill areas. Skills in evaluation and reorganization were the most neglected which is seen more clearly in Table 6.6 where the methodology is shown according to level of reading com-

Table 6.5

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Highroads to Reading Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to skills																						
	Gr	Freq. no coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	88	54.5	2.3	2.3	3.4	22.7	2.3											2.3	1.1	1.1		1.1	6.8	99.9
	5	47	44.7	12.8			23.4	4.3										2.1		4.3		4.3		4.3	100.2
	6	13	23.1	15.4		7.7	30.8		7.7													7.7		7.7	100.1
	Sum	148	48.6	6.8	1.4	2.7	23.6	2.7	0.7									0.7	1.4	2.0	0.7	2.0	0.7	6.1	100.1
Directives	4	141	26.2	2.8	6.4	7.1	14.2	4.3	1.4	2.8			0.7		5.0	0.7		2.1	3.5	3.5	2.1	10.6	2.1	4.3	99.8
	5	64	20.3	4.7	4.7	12.5	21.9	4.7	3.1	1.6					1.6	1.6		3.1		6.3	1.6	9.4	1.6	1.6	100.3
	6	71	29.6	2.8	1.4	8.5	22.5	5.6	2.8						1.4					1.4	2.8	15.5	5.6		99.9
	Sum	276	25.7	3.3	4.7	8.7	18.1	4.7	2.2	1.8			0.4		3.3	0.7		1.8	1.8	3.6	2.2	11.6	2.9	2.5	100.0
Questions	4	263	27.4	1.9	1.5	3.0	36.9	1.5	3.0	2.7					1.9	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.4	13.7	99.9
	5	435	32.2	0.7		3.4	38.2	5.7	0.5	0.5					0.2			0.9	1.8	1.8	1.6	3.7	0.5	8.3	100.0
	6	197	20.8	0.5		7.1	34.5	2.5	2.5	4.6					0.5	1.5	0.5	1.5	3.6	1.0	4.6	3.6	1.0	9.6	99.9
	Sum	895	28.3	1.0	0.4	4.1	37.0	3.8	1.7	2.0					0.8	0.4	0.2	0.9	2.1	1.5	2.1	2.9	0.6	10.2	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	1								100.0															100.0
	5	17	35.3		5.9					5.9		5.9		5.9	11.8	5.9	5.9						17.6		100.1
	6	18	22.2	5.6		5.6				16.7	5.6		11.1							5.6		27.8			100.2
	Sum	36	27.8	2.8	2.8	2.8				13.9	2.8	2.8	5.6	2.8	5.6	2.8	2.8			2.8		13.9	8.3		100.3
Activities	4	39		5.1	2.6	2.6		7.7	2.6									2.6		2.6		7.7	66.7		100.2
	5	8																					100.0		100.0
	6	5				40.0																20.0	40.0		100.0
	Sum	52		3.8	1.9	5.8		5.8	1.9									1.9		1.9		7.7	69.2		99.9
Skill Exercises (W)	4	65	29.2	13.8	10.8		10.8	4.6	3.1	4.6					3.1	1.5	4.6		4.6	4.6	3.1	1.5			99.9
	5	75	42.7	20.0	5.3	2.7	6.7	8.0	1.3	1.3		1.3					4.0		1.3			4.0		1.3	99.9
	6	52	32.7	17.3	1.9	5.8	5.8	1.9	5.8	5.8							5.8		5.8			5.8	1.9	3.8	100.1
	Sum	192	35.4	17.2	6.3	2.6	7.8	5.2	3.1	3.6		0.5			1.0	0.5	4.7		3.6	1.6	1.0	3.6	0.5	1.6	99.8
Total		15[illegible]	29.6	4.0	2.1	4.6	27.0	4.0	1.8	2.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	1.3	0.5	0.8	0.9	2.1	1.9	1.8	4.8	3.4	6.9	100.2

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Table 6.6

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Highroads to Reading
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Percentage of methodology related to levels Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	88	73.9	13.6		2.3	3.4	6.8	100.0
	5	47	68.1	17.0		2.1	8.5	4.3	100.0
	6	13	53.8	30.8			7.7	7.7	100.0
	Sum	148	70.3	16.2		2.0	5.4	6.1	100.0
Directives	4	141	44.0	21.3	0.7	11.3	18.4	4.3	100.0
	5	64	35.9	37.5		6.3	18.8	1.6	100.1
	6	71	42.3	31.0		1.4	25.4		100.1
	Sum	276	41.7	27.5	0.4	7.6	20.3	2.5	100.0
Questions	4	263	45.6	32.3		6.6	3.8	13.7	100.0
	5	435	42.8	38.4		3.0	7.6	8.3	100.1
	6	197	32.0	40.6		7.6	10.2	9.6	100.0
	Sum	895	41.2	37.1		4.5	7.0	10.2	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	1		100.0					100.0
	5	17	35.3	11.8	11.8	23.5	17.6		100.0
	6	18	16.7	33.3	16.7		33.3		100.0
	Sum	36	25.0	25.0	13.9	11.1	25.0		100.0
Activities	4	39	5.1	15.4		2.6	76.9		100.0
	5	8					100.0		100.0
	6	5	20.0	20.0			60.0		100.0
	Sum	52	5.8	13.5		1.9	78.8		100.0
Skill Exercises (V)	4	65	44.6	32.3		13.8	9.2		99.9
	5	75	64.0	24.0	1.3	5.3	4.0	1.3	99.9
	6	52	44.2	32.7		11.5	7.7	3.8	99.9
	Sum	192	52.1	29.2	0.5	9.9	6.8	1.6	100.1
	Total	1599	43.8	31.5	0.4	5.5	11.9	6.9	100.0

prehension.

The information in Table 6.6 shows that the levels of comprehension coded were in order from most to least frequently coded:

Literal (43.8)
Inferential (31.5)
Appreciation (11.9)
Evaluation (5.5)
Reorganization (0.4)

Relation between theory and methodology in Highroads. Generally the views and goals of reading contained in Highroads were not consistent with the reading comprehension methodology. Literary appreciation had been given as an objective of the series but the reading comprehension methodology recorded within the appreciation level equalled only 12% and only one skill belonging to the appreciation level was coded as belonging within the five more frequently occurring categories of content type. Reading comprehension had been considered an important aspect of reading and reading instruction by the authors of Highroads who had divided comprehension into literal, critical, and appreciative levels and listed such skills as drawing conclusions, predicting outcomes, appreciating language form as key skills within these levels. Very few of these skills were demanded by the reading comprehension methodology contained in the series, the evaluative level was virtually non-existent, and the literal level of reading comprehension was demanded the most by the methodology. Study and reference skills such as outlining, summarizing, and organizing had been listed by the authors as important reading skills to be developed during reading instruction but these were not required of the students very often (0.4%).

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in Highroads. No general overview of the reading skills and abilities contained in Highroads was given in the manual. Consequently, no comparison between the stated curriculum content of the program and actual reading comprehension can be discussed. Where a particular activity, directive, question, skill exercise, or purpose was designated as developing a reading comprehension skill there was usually agreement between the authors' classification of the reading comprehension skill being developed and that coded by the writer.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Highroads. Criteria similar to those in Canadian Reading Development were used to select the content for the Highroads readers. These included interest appeal, variety, high literary quality, varied length, correlation potential, and Canadian orientation. Selections were centered around a single theme within a unit arrangement. Specifically, the frequency and percentage of each type of content found in the Highroads readers is shown in Table 6.7.

Poetry and the prose categories of morals, animal and nature stories, historical selections, and fables, folktales, fairytales were the most common types of content found in Highroads. It is difficult to ascertain any systematic pattern of increases or

Table 6.7

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in
Highroads to Reading

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	32	35.2	23	46.0	26	50.0	81	42.0
Prose:								
Morals/values	17	18.7	5	10.0	4	7.7	26	13.5
Animals/nature	10	11.0	4	8.0	5	9.6	19	9.8
Historical	6	6.6	6	12.0	6	11.5	18	9.3
Fables/tales	18	19.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Fantasy	8	8.8	3	6.0	5	9.6	16	8.3
Canadian life	3	3.3	5	10.0	6	11.5	14	7.3
Adventure	3	3.3	5	10.0	4	7.7	12	6.2
Real./interper.	2	2.2	4	8.0	3	5.8	9	4.7
Geography	5	5.5	4	8.0	0	0.0	9	4.7
Myths/legends	3	3.3	3	6.0	1	1.9	7	3.6
Mod. Tech.	6	6.6	0	0.0	1	1.9	7	3.6
Drama	2	2.2	1	2.0	2	3.8	5	2.6
Religious	2	2.2	0	0.0	1	1.9	3	1.6
Humour/nonsense	1	1.1	1	2.0	1	1.9	3	1.6
Biography	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Science	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

decreases in the types of content in the series with the exception of realistic-interpersonal stories and stories of Canadian life which increased from grades four to six; and moralistic selections, fables, myths, and stories about modern technology which decreased from grades four to six.

The type of content contained in _Highroads_ was very similar to that in _Canadian Reading Development_ but there were differences. The most striking difference was the increase of fantasy content in _Highroads_ which caused, conversely, much less realistic interpersonal content to be included than was in _Canadian Reading Development_. _Highroads_ also had fewer geographical and Canadian life selections, and more historical selections, fables and tales than _Canadian Reading Development_. That there was less Canadian orientation in this series is more evident in the following breakdown of the prose selections found to have Canadian content:

		Canadian Content	
	No. Prose Selections	Frequency	Percentage
Reader 4	59	6	10.2
Reader 5	27	6	22.2
Reader 6	26	9	34.6
Total	112	21	18.8

Like the stories in _Canadian Reading Development_ those which were "Canadian" oriented presented the world of the Canadian in different parts of Canada. We travel by sleigh through Quebec, experience the hazards of a wheat farmer, become a part of a new rural school, and learn the ins and outs of the shipbuilding industry in eastern Canada. Again the themes of hard work, the child helping adults and neighbours, and the worthwhileness of having good citizenry qualities were embedded in the stories. Other values found in the stories were generosity, the evil of vanity, wisdom, courage, and respect for others.

Not all of these stories were narrative in form although it was the most dominant as seen in Table 6.8 which depicts the frequency and percentage of the written forms found in the Highroads readers.

Table 6.8

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Highroads to Reading

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	67	73.6	38	76	31	59.6	136	70.5
Descriptive/ Informational	9	4.7	2	4.0	6	11.6	17	8.8
Expository	8	4.1					8	4.1
Literary - Poetry	32	35.2	23	46.0	26	50.0	81	42.0
- Drama	2	2.2	1	2.0	2	3.8	5	2.6
Functional								

As shown in Table 6.8 very few stories were written in a descriptive or expository style for the purpose of conveying information.

Given the type of content in the Highroads readers and the reading comprehension methodology which accompanied each reader selection the writer concluded that, for the most part, the reading comprehension methodology accompanying each reader selection was pertinent to the content type of that selection. It should be noted, however, that on occasion the writer felt that the evaluative and appreciative dimensions of reading comprehension could be highlighted in relation to specific reader selections. Poetry, moralistic stories, fables and fantasy selections would have lent themselves to this.

Taken as a whole the picture which arises from comparing the type and form of content with the philosophy stated by the authors is somewhat different. The authors had stated that literary quality, a wide range of content type, content of a Canadian orientation and content that correlated with other subject areas were the criteria used for selection of reader content. The expectation leading from this is that a fairly high percentage of the content would consist of descriptive-informational and expository material as well as material that was definitely cast in a Canadian milieu. The percentages of this kind of material that were actually recorded were descriptive-informational - 8.8%; expository - 4.1%; and Canadian prose - 18.8% which suggests some inconsistency between the authors' philosophy regarding content and actual content contained in the series.

Relation of Reading Comprehension Methodology to Developments in the Field of Reading

The reading comprehension methodology in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading reflected the suggestions for reading comprehension instruction in the professional literature. Questioning, exercises, discussion, and systematic instruction were the most prevalent ideas given by reading authorities and these were present within the series.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in Other Fields

A paradox can be seen in the general methodological principles found in the series. A more systematic approach to instruction on one hand has evolved simply through the structured lesson format in the manuals and the fact that manuals and workbooks accompany each reader wherein could be found more skill exercises than ever before as well as the use of clear-cut objectives. These characteristics illustrate a possible relation to the growing emphasis on systematic curriculum development which was in full swing by the forties. And yet, there was no systematic patterning of questioning or steps suggested for developing comprehension in any way apart from the exercises and questioning. Thus effects of the scientific movement were evident in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads but were not carried through to the fullest possible degree.

Along with the presence of a 'scientific' orientation there were traces of the progressive influence. The increase in the number and variety of activities, the presence of enterprises, and the thematic organization of the reader stories suggest a strong "touch" of progressivism.

Summary

The discussion above indicates that reading theory and reading comprehension methodology were continuing to evolve in

Canadian elementary series. The analysis of the relationship between these characteristics of the reading series and developments in the field of reading and other fields seems to have unravelled a possible emerging trend.

With each publication of Canadian elementary reading series studied to date an attempt was made to integrate aspects of certain developments which had occurred during the previous fifteen years but the series either just made or just missed being current. Certain developments which occurred between 1945 and 1949, for example, did not affect the content of Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading. Would the influence of these developments and/or those occurring between 1950 and 1965 be seen in the next series published, Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers? Would a trend emerge?

Reading Theory in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers

In Canadian Ginn Basic reading was believed to be a complex process which included the "clear perception of symbols, the understanding of words, sentences and passages, the interpretation of meaning and the use of printed materials" (Russell, McIntosh, et al, 1961, p. 7). Reading was also viewed as a communication process where ideas were both given and received making it similar to the other language arts of speaking, listening, observing and oral reading (Russell, McIntosh, et al, 1961). A view of reading as being made up of various abilities was also present as the authors (1961) stated:

> Research and successful school practice indicate that there is no such thing as a single reading ability that covers all reading situations. Instead, there are many different reading abilities which children learn to use. (p. 13)

Because of this theory the program was organized around strands which could be considered aspects of an "all-round reading ability" (Russell, McIntosh, et al, 1961, p. 15). These strands were: readiness, word-study skills, comprehension and study skills, and creative reading ability. Within each of these groupings specific skills were listed. Some of these are shown in Figure 6.3.

In Young Canada Readers, too, a "skills" orientation was present. Skills were not specifically delineated or grouped as they had been in Canadian Ginn Basic but they were listed very often as objectives for a unit and included such skills as making inferences, enlarging vocabulary, grasping the central thought, and drawing conclusions. These reading skills were to be developed through the Reading Progress Book more than within the manual. The Reading Progress Book was a section of skill exercises at the back of each reader designed to introduce and extend reading skills. However, the focus of the Young Canada Readers was distinctly different following the lines established in the previous Nelson reading series, Highroads. The major underlying philosophy of Young Canada Readers was that reading was a literary experience. As in Highroads the authors contended that reading should not be equated with reading skills. In the manual to the grade four reader, Bowers, Bailey and Quick (1964) stated:

> The editors have recognized that in the earlier decades of this century the reading program introduced the

Locating Information

- Using alphabetical order
  - arranging words in order
  - in using dictionary and glossary
  - in using encyclopedia
- Using an index
- Using a dictionary and a glossary
  - diacritical marks in
  - guide words
  - introduction to
  - respellings
  - independent exercise
  - See also Index of word-study skills
- Using an encyclopedia
  - for reference
  - guide words in and mechanics of
  - index of
- Using a card catalogue
  - arrangement, contents
- Using maps, diagrams, and schedules
  - learning to interpret a map
  - population map
  - using maps
  - interpreting diagrams
  - reading schedules
- Skimming
  - to find character clues
  - to find favorite passages
  - to find specific information
  - to find unusual expression

Comprehending What Is Read

- Finding the main ideas
  - associating events with subtitles
  - choosing titles
  - composing paragraphs around a main idea
  - composing titles
  - in paragraphs
  - making notes of
  - matching main and subordinate ideas
  - matching paragraphs with titles
  - for outlining
  - recognizing and discussing
  - writing summarizing statements
  - tests in
  - worksheets and independent exercises
  - See also Note-taking, Outlining
- Finding details
  - discovering evidence of character traits
  - recalling specific details
  - recognizing details to support the main idea
  - using study guides, charts, outlines
  - tests in recalling details
  - verifying answers and opinions
  - worksheets and independent exercises
- Recognizing the sequence of ideas
  - arranging and recalling ideas in sequence
- Creative reading
  - answering thought questions
  - discussing writing style
  - drawing conclusions
  - expressing points of view
  - forming judgments and opinions
  - interpreting author's style
  - interpreting attitudes, emotions
  - making comparisons
  - making inferences
  - predicting outcomes
  - recognizing author's purpose
  - recognizing story structure
  - sensing mood
  - stimulating imagery

Remembering What Is Read

- Practising oral and written recall
- Using aids to retention
- Selecting facts to be remembered
  - details

Evaluating Information

- Discriminating between
  - cause and effect
  - fact and fiction
  - past and present
  - relevant and irrelevant
- Predicting outcomes
- Solving problems
- Recognizing different forms

Using Information

- Following directions
- Note-taking
- Outlining
  - following an outline
  - making an outline
  - using an outline
- Summarizing
  - of paragraphs
  - of stories

Figure 6.3. A condensation of reading skills outlined in the *Canadian Ginn Basic Reading Series*

> pupils to a rich heritage of literature but presented the techniques of reading in a stumbling fashion. By the end of the third decade, research was bringing into prominence a more scientifically organized approach to the teaching of reading. Unfortunately, the new approach led to a preoccupation with mechanical and pedestrian aspects to the neglect of the thrill of reading. Literary quality became subservient to a teaching emphasis on selected skills. What the program gained in efficiency, it lost in stimulation. (p. 7)

This observation of the authors was most perceptive for as we have seen in the previous discussion reading skills were receiving more and more emphasis.

Other procedures and skills contained in the manual were designed mostly in relation to literary appreciation. In reference to this the authors (1964) revealed more of their philosophy:

> Inherent in this approach is the recognition that, although reading instruction can be provided quite apart from literature, the richness of literature can be discovered only through the application of a broad range of reading skills. Narrow surface interpretation of the prose or poetry is not enough; true appreciation demands reading in depth, with full interpretation and reflection. (p. 12)

The authors (1964) of Young Canada Readers did see reading as a means of obtaining information, for helping pupils learn about themselves and others, of providing enjoyment and a way of escape, and concurred that a major purpose of the program was to stimulate thought where the reading done should go beyond the "what and how" to more stimulation of thinking:

> . . . the 'what' becomes a springboard for our own creative thoughts. It is more important today than ever before that our students think independently and clearly. Anything that can be done to help them achieve this skill is worthwhile; a well-directed program of reading is one of the best ways to make young people think. (p. 9)

The implication here is that the authors recognized reading as a cognitive process. However, this was secondary to their overriding conceptualization of reading as a literary experience which is even more evident in the following statement by Bowers, Bailey and Quick (1964):

> When we speak of reading to stimulate thought, or reading for pleasure, or reading for escape, or reading for aesthetic appeal, or reading for revelation of life, we are describing the various facets of good literature. (p. 11)

As in Canadian Ginn Basic reading was also seen as being composed of two major elements: the mechanical process of decoding symbols into sound and the process of comprehending the meaning conveyed by these sounds.

In Canadian Ginn Basic the relation between reading and child development was greatly emphasized. For example, the authors (1962) described grade five aged pupils as children who are developing broader interests, who can 'begin' to understand people everywhere, who are

> mature enough to read longer selections with a definite purpose in mind . . . better able to apply their reading to related situations because more meaningful patterns of the relationships among ideas become apparent to them. This intellectual development is paralleled by social development which influences their behavior making it possible for them to enjoy working in committees and larger groups. (p. 33)

Within this series the developmental nature of a reading program received emphasis. This was to be implemented through a well-planned, systematic approach which according to Gibbs and Poleshuk (1962) would involve:

> readiness activities leading to certain skills or abilities, motivated practice in the ability over a period of time, and spaced reviewing of the skill to encourage permanent learnings. . . . Thus a basal reading program does not introduce a skill and drop it. Rather, the program provides over the years for gradual and continuous development of important reading achievement. . . . The Canadian Ginn Basic Reading Program offers many opportunition for such gradual and continuous growth of reading abilities. . . . It is based on . . . carefree provisions for all phases of reading ability developing over the years. (pp. 10-11)

The authors contended that the continuous development of reading skills was met by the provision of successively more mature reader content, its methods found in the manuals and workbooks, the content of ideas repeated in units of readers, and its ten major vertical strands of readiness, word study skills, comprehension and study skills, creative reading abilities, reading interests, related language abilities, provision for enrichment, relating of reading activities to other areas of curriculum, evaluating growth in reading, and provision for individual differences.

In Young Canada Readers, too, the authors maintained (although not as strongly as the authors of Canadian Ginn Basic) that a developmental reading program should be consistent with a child's reading growth.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in the Field of Reading

The concepts of reading as a cognitive or thinking activity and as a skills activity had begun to strengthen in the professional literature of the reading field between 1945 and 1949. The fact that these concepts of the reading process were stressed more in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers than in any of the preceding series illustrates the influence of theoretical developments in reading upon the content of Canadian reading series. However, between 1950 and the late 1960's the view of reading as a cognitive, problem-solving activity had gathered momentum. This view of the reading process was not evident in the reading series. The theory of reading in Canadian Ginn Basic was that of Russell who had authored the American Ginn Basic series published in the United States several years before Canadian Ginn Basic. The theory in both series was identical. Russell's classification of reading comprehension skills, his concepts of reading and child development, reading as a communication activity, reading as a skills activity, and reading as one of the language arts were concepts in the literature from about 1949 to 1968 and thus were current influences upon the content of Canadian Ginn Basic.

From the early 1960's on the effect of linguistic considerations in reading, the theory of reading as an information-processing activity, as a psycholinguistic activity, and the results of research on learning from text dominated the professional literature. None of these developments seemed to have influenced either the Canadian Ginn Basic or Young Canada Readers reading series.

Relation of Reading Theory to Developments in Other Fields

Several characteristics of Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers provide evidence that developments in curriculum did have an impact on the content of Canadian reading series. The more structured, organized format of these two series, and the presence of goals and objectives were quite possibly influenced by the trend in the sixties toward systematic curriculum development.

The unit organization, the attempt to integrate language arts with reading, the attempt to relate reading to other content areas, the attempt to relate reading to child development and children's reading interests may reflect some of the lingering traces of progressivism.

Many developments in curriculum, however, did not seem to carry over into the Canadian reading series. For example, neither the problem-solving, discovery approach to curriculum nor a behavioral-objective orientation was present in the reading series.

The emphasis on child development, individualizing instruction, motivation, and children's interests contained in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers illustrates that aspects of the field of psychology affected the reading series. In the section entitled "The Psychology of a Basic Reading Program" the authors of Canadian Ginn Basic even asserted, "Thus the Canadian Ginn Basic Reading Program is built on careful research in child development and in the psychology of learning to read . . ." (Russell, McIntosh, et al, 1963, p. 6).

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers

In Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers methodology was given greater attention than ever before. The manuals and workbooks were now more organized and more detailed than any of those belonging to the preceding series.

Methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic. The lesson format accompanying each reader selection in Canadian Ginn Basic was much like that in Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading with the exception that it was more detailed and organized. The steps within each lesson were: (1) Developing readiness for reading; (2) Reading and interpreting the story; (3) Building essential abilities, habits, and skills of reading; (4) Related language activities; and (5) Enrichment activities. Those essential abilities, habits, and skills listed in Canadian Ginn Basic as being necessary to reading comprehension were to be developed systematically and sequentially. From the lessons correlated with each reader selection the methodology designed to develop pupils' reading comprehension was recorded. The frequency of the codings of each aspect of the reading comprehension methodology and the percentage of that methodology which developed particular reading comprehension skills is shown in Table 6.9.

Purposes, questions, and activities are more numerous than ever before with activities being mostly related to those requiring imagery. Details were most often demanded by the methodology followed by cause-effect relationships, imagery, character traits, and main ideas. The skills of summarizing, outlining, classifying, synthesizing, fact/opinion, adequacy/validity, worth and appropriateness were the least evidenced in the methodology. Very little was included which demanded that the students reason or

Table 6.9

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic
Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to skills																					
	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	182	36.8	2.7	4.4	4.4	16.5	1.1	2.7				1.1	0.5			0.5	0.5	2.2	1.1	2.2	2.7	4.9	15.5	99.7
	5	150	38.0	2.7	0.7	2.0	17.3	4.7	4.0						0.7			0.7	2.0	5.3	4.0	8.0	6.0	4.0	100.1
	6	141	46.1	2.1	2.8	1.4	21.3	5.7	1.4									2.1	1.4	4.3	1.4	0.7	3.5	5.7	99.9
	Sum	473	40.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	18.2	3.6	2.7				0.4	0.2	0.2		0.2	1.1	1.9	3.4	2.3	3.8	4.9	8.9	99.9
Directives	4	79	21.5	2.5	5.1	5.1	12.7	5.1	3.8	1.3									1.3	8.9	2.5	16.5	11.4	2.5	100.2
	5	54	25.9	7.4		1.9	5.6	3.7					3.7						5.6	20.4	5.6	7.4	11.1	1.9	100.2
	6	110	32.7	5.5	1.8	8.2	7.3	15.5	0.9	2.7		0.9								7.3	0.9	11.8	4.5		100.0
	Sum	243	27.6	4.9	2.5	5.8	8.6	9.5	1.6	1.6		0.4	0.8						1.6	10.7	2.5	12.3	8.2	1.2	99.8
Questions	4	642	30.7	0.8	0.9	3.6	21.0	3.9	3.0	0.6					0.5	1.1	0.3	0.9	3.7	3.4	5.1	1.9	4.0	14.5	99.9
	5	338	23.4	1.8	0.3	3.8	26.3	6.2	4.4	1.8					0.9	2.4	0.6	0.3	5.0	2.4	3.3	1.8	2.4	13.0	100.1
	6	550	33.8	1.5	0.7	3.5	18.9	6.2	3.3	0.5					0.2	1.5	0.9	1.5	4.9	2.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	13.3	100.2
	Sum	1530	30.2	1.2	0.7	3.6	21.6	5.2	3.4	0.8					0.5	1.5	0.6	1.0	4.4	3.0	3.6	2.0	3.1	13.7	99.9
Skill Exercises (M)	4	71	31.0	19.7	11.3	1.4	5.6	1.4	1.4	1.4	5.6	5.6	1.4				2.8		4.2		1.4	2.8	2.8		99.8
	5	60	18.3	16.7	11.7		8.3		1.7	6.7	3.3	1.7			1.7	1.7	6.7		1.7		1.7	10.0	5.0	3.3	100.2
	6	81	28.4	22.2	9.9	2.5	11.1			1.2	2.5	2.5			1.2		7.4	2.5	1.2		1.2	8.6	1.2	7.4	99.9
	Sum	212	26.4	15.6	10.8	1.4	8.5	0.5	0.9	2.8	3.8	3.3	0.5		0.9	0.5	5.7	0.9	2.4		1.4	7.1	2.8	3.8	100.0
Activities	4	59	1.7	1.7	8.5	1.7	1.7		5.1		1.7									5.1			72.9		100.1
	5	53	5.7	7.5	3.8	3.8			5.7											5.7	1.9	3.8	60.4	1.9	100.2
	6	69	8.7		4.3	2.9	2.9		7.2								1.4		1.4	1.4		5.8	62.3	1.4	99.7
	Sum	181	5.5	2.8	5.5	2.8	1.7		6.1		0.6						0.6		0.6	3.9	0.6	3.3	65.2	1.1	100.3
Skill Exercises (W)	4	56	32.1	33.9	8.9		10.7		1.8		1.8						1.8					1.8	3.6	3.6	100.0
	5	79	41.8	6.3	5.1	2.5	20.3	2.5	1.3		1.3	1.3			2.5	1.3	1.3				1.3	2.5	2.5	6.3	100.1
	6	83	38.6	10.8	3.6	4.8	16.5	2.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2		1.2		4.8			1.2		3.6		8.4	99.9
	Sum	218	38.1	15.1	5.5	2.8	15.6	1.8	1.4	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.5		1.4	0.5	2.8			0.5	0.5	2.8	1.8	6.4	100.2
Total		2857	30.3	4.0	2.6	3.4	17.2	4.4	3.0	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.2		0.5	0.9	1.0	0.8	3.0	3.4	2.7	3.7	7.6	9.8	100.2

problem-solve. This is illustrated more clearly in Table 6.10 which shows the results of coding the reading comprehension methodology according to the level of reading comprehension it demanded.

From Table 6.10 it is evident that the literal level of comprehension was the most often required level of thinking by the reading comprehension methodology followed by inferential, appreciation, evaluation, and reorganization. By looking more closely at the information presented in relation to particular aspects of the methodology a slightly different picture emerges. Purposes and workbook skill exercises, for example, especially emphasized the literal level while questions were more evenly divided between literal and inferential and activities fell generally within the appreciation level.

Relation between theory and methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic. There is some disparity in Canadian Ginn Basic between the authors' description of the important elements of reading, those that would be developed in the series, and the actual reading comprehension methodology recorded. For example, the importance of developing a wide range of essential reading skills had been advocated yet three reading comprehension skills constituted 57.3% of the methodology coded--the remaining percent being divided among eighteen reading comprehension skills. The development of both the inferential and literal levels of reading comprehension had been emphasized by the authors but the literal was demanded the most often by the reading comprehension methodology and the

Table 6.10

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	182	55.5	13.2	1.6	3.3	11.0	15.4	100.0
	5	150	50.0	19.3		3.3	23.3	4.0	99.9
	6	141	71.6	9.2		3.5	9.9	5.7	99.9
	Sum	473	58.6	14.0	0.6	3.4	14.6	8.9	100.1
Directives	4	79	29.1	27.8		1.3	39.2	2.5	99.9
	5	54	25.9	18.5	3.7	5.6	44.4	1.9	100.0
	6	110	45.5	29.1	0.9		24.5		100.0
	Sum	243	35.8	26.3	1.2	1.6	33.7	1.2	99.8
Questions	4	642	31.5	33.0		6.5	14.5	14.5	100.0
	5	338	25.7	42.3		9.2	9.8	13.0	100.0
	6	550	41.1	27.3		8.9	9.5	13.3	100.1
	Sum	1530	33.7	33.0		8.0	11.6	13.7	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	71	47.9	25.4	12.7	7.0	7.0		100.0
	5	60	38.3	25.0	5.0	11.7	16.7	3.3	100.0
	6	81	43.2	21.0	4.9	12.3	11.1	7.4	99.9
	Sum	212	43.4	23.6	7.5	10.4	11.3	3.8	100.0
Activities	4	59	8.5	11.9	1.7		78.0		100.1
	5	53	11.3	15.1			71.7	1.9	100.0
	6	69	15.9	10.1		2.9	69.6	1.4	99.9
	Sum	181	12.2	12.2	0.6	1.1	72.9	1.1	100.1
Skill Exercises (W)	4	56	62.5	25.0	1.8	1.8	5.4	3.6	100.1
	5	79	50.6	30.4	1.3	5.1	6.3	6.3	100.0
	6	83	57.8	19.3	3.6	6.0	4.8	8.4	99.9
	Sum	218	56.4	24.8	2.3	4.6	5.5	6.4	100.0
	Total	2857	39.1	26.6	1.0	6.2	17.4	9.8	100.1

evaluation level being demanded very rarely. The reading skills belonging to the reorganization level of reading comprehension were almost never developed by the reading comprehension methodology although the authors had expressed their belief that these were vital reading skills which were included in the program. However, the reading comprehension methodology did include many purposes which were set prior to the student's reading of a reader selection which was consistent with the stated philosophy of the authors.

Relation between the curriculum content and methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic. The relationship between the stated overall curriculum content and recorded reading comprehension methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic was both consistent and inconsistent. Several reading comprehension skills had been listed in the outlines of reading skills contained in the program. Of these approximately 16 reading comprehension skills two--details and cause-effect relationships--were developed by the program's reading comprehension methodology to the extent of 17% and 30% respectively. Eight were required by the reading comprehension methodology to the extent of between 0-4% and six were not developed at all by the reading comprehension methodology.

Generally the reading comprehension skills designed by the authors as being developed by a particular aspect of the methodology were consistent with those coded by the writer.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Canadian Ginn Basic. The development of reading interests was mentioned as a goal of this series. Therefore, the story material chosen would probably have to cover a wide range of types of stories. Table 6.11 gives the breakdown of the actual type of content found in Canadian Ginn Basic.

As indicated in Table 6.11 there has been an increase of poetry in Canadian Ginn Basic. In contrast with the other series which have been described Canadian Ginn Basic provided an entire unit on poetry as well as interspersing poems throughout the remaining units. Next in order of frequency were realistic/interpersonal selections, stories about animals and nature, moralistic, and historical selections. There are more humourous stories and realistic/interpersonal stories in Canadian Ginn Basic than there were in the previous series while there are, conversely, fewer selections of fantasy.

There was a Canadian orientation in some of the prose content. The extent to which this was found can be seen below:

	No. Prose Selections	Canadian Content Frequency	Canadian Content Percentage
Reader 4	40	5	12.5
Reader 5	40	10	25.0
Reader 6	45	10	22.2
Total	125	25	20.0

The amount of Canadian content has not changed much from what was in the Highroads series (1946-1950) and is still much

Table 6.11

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in
Canadian Ginn Basic

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	80	66.7	62	60.8	67	59.8	209	62.6
Prose:								
Animals/nature	12	10.0	6	5.9	7	6.3	25	7.5
Real./interper.	8	6.7	9	8.8	8	7.1	25	7.5
Morals/values	9	7.5	7	6.9	8	7.1	24	7.2
Historical	4	3.3	7	6.9	9	8.0	20	6.0
Adventure	10	8.3	4	3.9	4	3.6	18	5.4
Geography	9	7.5	3	2.9	3	2.7	15	4.5
Humour/nonsense	1	0.8	5	4.9	4	3.6	10	3.0
Biography	0	0.0	3	2.9	6	5.4	9	2.7
Fables/tales	4	3.3	2	2.0	2	1.8	8	2.4
Myths/legends	2	1.7	2	3.0	3	2.7	7	2.1
Science	0	0.0	2	2.0	3	2.7	5	1.5
Religious	2	1.7	1	1.0	1	0.9	4	1.2
Canadian life	3	2.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.9
Fantasy	2	1.7	1	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.9
Mod. Tech.	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	1	0.3
Functional	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	1	0.3
Drama	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

less than what had been in Canadian Reading Development (1946-1950). The selections themselves illustrated pioneer episodes in Canada's history as well as insights into the life of Canadians via glimpses of farming, hunting, and historical excursions into Indian legends and pioneers.

The kaleidoscope of stories in Canadian Ginn Basic make one immediately aware of being in a different age and time from that in the previous series of this period, even though Canadian Ginn Basic was published only ten to fifteen years after Highroads and Canadian Reading Development. We have now entered a child's world of secret caves, picnics, and pranks, and a more modern world of truck transportation, bush pilots, and technology.

The adjustment of the immigrant is no longer a concern. Its place has passed to stories which bring in the life of native Indians and Eskimos. Character values are still important personified often through heroes in legends and also through realistic stories where a child has had to face a situation which demands quick-thinking, honesty, caution, courage, and an awareness of the value of material things. As before, children are often part of the adults' world as well as their peers'. They work to help and contribute to the family unit. Now, however, children are not all living with father, mother, and two sisters. Occasionally we meet a child who is living with his relatives-- an aunt, uncle or grandparents.

Several stories portray the realistic world of the child; cousins visit each other, boys brag to others. Other values which surface are an appreciation of wild animals, sportsmanship, respect, being prepared for emergencies, neighbourliness, resourcefulness, determination, and patience.

The lack of science, biography, and technological content suggests that descriptive-information and expository written forms may not have been overly used in the readers. This is, in fact, borne out by the analysis of the written forms in the readers presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Canadian Ginn Basic

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	55	45.8	54	52.9	34	30.4	143	42.8
Descriptive/ Informational	7	5.8	0	0.0	22	19.6	29	8.7
Expository	4	3.3	9	8.8	0	0.0	13	3.9
Literary - Poetry	80	66.7	62	60.8	67	59.8	209	62.6
- Drama	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Functional	0	0.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	1	

As shown in Table 6.12 the literary form of poetry and the narrative form were the most dominant forms in Canadian Ginn Basic.

Generally the writer felt that the specific reading comprehension skills developed in conjunction with the content of each story were appropriate in relation to the selection's type and form. However, there were a number of occasions where it became evident that other reading comprehension skills could have been heightened. Skills such as predicting and main ideas could easily have been more fully developed in relation to historical, adventure and animal/nature stories while more emphasis could easily have been placed on figurative language given the number of poems contained in the readers. More reading comprehension skills at the appreciation level generally could have been suggested in relation to the poems. In addition, historical selections lent themselves to the development of reorganizational skills and moralistic selections provided an opportunity for increased development of evaluation skills.

Methodology in Young Canada Readers. As mentioned earlier, the Reading Progress Book in Young Canada Readers was designed to provide for the systematic development of reading skills within the reading series. In addition, teaching procedures were presented in the literature-reading lessons of the manual. These were to provide for daily enjoyable practice of skills where as stated by Bower, Bates, and Boyle (1964):

> No prose or poetry is debased for the sake of stressing a set of reading skills. Rather, the pupils are led, through the application of the skills they are learning to discover the charm of the literature they are reading. (p. 12)

In teaching prose the authors included teaching aids within the directed reading section of the manual that corresponded to each individual reader selection. Here the importance of plot, story type, characterization, setting are first emphasized and the teacher is warned not to teach poetry via the old, indoctrination method of extensive analysis. Analysis was needed but more important was synthesis and the teacher's task, therefore, was to "help the pupil achieve by the exercise of his own creative and imaginative faculties an experience somewhat similar to that of the inspired poet" (West, Bowers, and Parliament, 1964, p. 25). When teaching the poem's content questioning was suggested as the teacher's major strategy where the questions asked should not demand merely factual responses. These questions were to include making comparisons, character traits, understanding figurative language, understanding cause and effect relations, and drawing conclusions.

It was also suggested that the teacher question pupils about form, theme, and style. Several types of questions were presented for the teacher to adapt to different lessons found in the manual. Guidance was also given the teacher for preparing literature-reading lessons. These lessons were to be presented through the dimensions of a selection's content and style subsumed under the main thought of a selection which was the theme or central idea expressed by the writer. A chart was included to illustrate the major elements of content and style which the teacher should consider in preparing to teach a literature-reading selection.

In teaching the literature-reading lesson the teacher was to develop the pupils' mastery of the printed page and help them to synthesize the elements of the literary selection. The overriding objective of the lesson was to "help the pupil enjoy the literary selection as an organic whole" where the "method supports the meaning" for "no manual can be a substitute for the teacher's personal knowledge of the needs and interests of his pupils" (West, Bowers, and Parliament, 1964, p. 50).

As with Canadian Ginn Basic and the immediately preceding series a lesson format accompanied each selection which included five steps: preparing for the story, introducing the story, guidance, discussion, and follow-up. From these sections in the manual the frequency and percentage of methodology which was related to reading comprehension was coded. This is depicted in Table 6.13.

The information in Table 6.13 shows the importance attributed to questioning with a total of 4428 questions having been recorded, more than in any other series to date. Skill exercises in the workbook far outdo those in the manual also supporting the importance of the Reading Progress Book for developing reading comprehension skills.

Details again lead the list of skills demanded by the methodology representing 29.9% of the data recorded. They are followed closely by cause-effect relationships which comprise 23.6% of the comprehension methodology. The next four skills demanded the most frequently were compare/contrast at 7.1%; character traits at 5.2%; emotional response at 4.8%; and reaction to language at 4.5%.

As in Canadian Ginn Basic the skills most neglected by the reading comprehension methodology according to Barrett's Taxonomy were predicting, main ideas, sequence, summarizing, classifying, outlining, synthesizing, and the skills of evaluation.

Table 6.13

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Young Canada Readers
Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to skills																						
	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	124	41.9	5.6	3.2	5.6	19.4	4.8		0.8							0.8	0.8	3.2	0.8	2.4	1.6		8.9	99.8
	5	102	26.5	8.8		15.7	16.7	3.9	1.0	1.0						1.0		2.9	7.8	2.9		3.9	2.0	5.9	100.0
	6	124	20.2	0.8		10.5	33.1	11.3	1.6									0.8	1.6	4.8	5.6	2.4	2.4	4.8	99.9
	Sum	350	29.7	4.9	1.1	10.3	23.4	6.9	0.9	0.6						0.3	0.3	1.4	4.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.4	6.6	100.2
Directives	4	47	14.9			12.8	4.3	8.5									2.1	2.1	4.3	19.1		8.5	21.3	2.1	100.0
	5	51	25.5	3.9	19.6	7.8	9.8	5.9									3.9		3.9	5.9		5.9	2.0		100.0
	6	10	10.0	10.0		60.0		10.0									10.0								100.0
	Sum	108	19.4	3.7	1.9	20.4	5.6	9.3	2.8								3.7	0.9	3.7	11.1		6.5	10.2	0.9	100.1
Questions	4	1234	35.9	1.5	0.5	5.4	19.4	3.3	2.4	0.2					1.0		0.7	0.5	1.3	3.2	4.1	4.1	4.9	11.5	99.9
	5	1390	34.8	1.9	1.4	6.4	21.2	4.5	1.4	0.4					0.4		0.2	1.4	2.4	7.3	2.2	3.5	3.1	7.5	100.0
	6	1804	23.7	1.4	0.6	6.9	30.8	6.5	2.4	1.2			0.2		0.6	0.3	0.3	2.0	2.2	4.8	1.3	6.3	2.7	5.9	100.1
	Sum	4428	30.6	1.6	0.8	6.3	24.6	5.0	2.1	0.7			0.1		0.6	0.1	0.4	1.4	2.0	5.2	2.4	4.8	3.4	8.0	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	2			50.0										50.0										100.0
	5	16	37.5	12.5	6.3	6.3		6.3			6.3			6.3	6.3							12.5			100.3
	6	3				66.7		33.3																	100.0
	Sum	21	28.6	9.5	9.5	14.3		9.5			4.8			4.8	9.5							9.5			100.0
Activities	4	19				5.3													10.5				84.2		100.0
	5	27				14.8	7.4	3.7	7.4			3.7			3.7				7.4	3.7		3.7	40.7	3.7	100.1
	6	21	4.8			33.3	9.5	9.5			4.8								4.8			9.5	23.8		100.0
	Sum	67	1.5			17.9	6.0	4.5	3.0		1.5	1.5			1.5				7.5	1.5		4.5	47.8	1.5	100.2
Skill Exercises (W)	4	68	26.5	13.2	7.4	5.9	27.9	4.4				4.4	1.5	1.5			1.5	1.5	2.9					1.5	100.1
	5	126	33.3	15.1	4.0	8.7	15.9	4.0	4.0			2.4	3.2					3.2	0.8	0.8		1.6		3.2	100.2
	6	74	29.7	16.2	2.7	1.4	20.3	4.1				4.1	4.1		4.1	1.4	1.4		2.7		1.4			6.8	100.4
	Sum	268	30.6	14.9	4.5	6.0	20.1	4.1	1.9			3.4	3.0	0.4	1.1	0.4	0.7	1.9	1.9	0.4	0.4	0.7		3.7	100.1
	Total	5542	29.9	2.5	1.1	7.1	23.6	5.2	2.0	0.6		0.2	0.2		0.6	0.1	0.5	1.4	2.2	4.8	2.2	4.5	3.8	7.4	99.9

This is more evident in Table 6.14 which depicts the levels of comprehension required by the program's comprehension methodology.

Table 6.14 shows that the methodology frequently demanded an almost equal number of literal and inferential responses to the content followed by those in the appreciation level. The results clearly indicate that the levels of reorganization and evaluation were the most neglected which is consistent with the findings in Table 6.13.

Relation between theory and methodology in Young Canada Readers. As with Canadian Ginn Basic there was some inconsistency in Young Canada Readers between the statements made by the authors concerning reading and reading instruction and the reading comprehension methodology recorded by the writer. Reading had been described as a thinking process in Young Canada Readers wherein comprehension was of the essence. Also, the authors considered reading to be primarily a literary experience and thus stressed the importance of the development of literary appreciation as a goal of any reading program. Inferential reading skills such as determining cause-effect relations, drawing conclusions and making comparisons; evaluative reading skills such as judging the validity of statements and authors' biases, and appreciative skills such as imagery, character traits, emotional response and the authors' use of language; and reorganizational skills such as synthesis were all mentioned by the authors as aspects of reading which received attention in the program. The reading comprehension methodology coded, however, showed that details, cause-effect relationships,

Table 6.14

Reading Comprehension Methodology in *Young Canada Readers*
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	124	62.9	18.5		4.8	4.8	8.9	99.9
	5	102	42.2	31.4		11.8	8.8	5.9	100.1
	6	124	41.1	36.3		2.4	15.3	4.8	99.9
	Sum	350	49.1	28.6		6.0	9.7	6.6	100.0
Directives	4	47	19.1	21.3		8.5	48.9	2.1	99.9
	5	51	19.6	58.8		7.8	13.7		99.9
	6	10	20.0	70.0		10.0			100.0
	Sum	108	19.4	43.5		8.3	27.8	0.9	99.9
Questions	4	1234	38.3	30.3		3.5	16.4	11.5	100.0
	5	1390	37.3	34.7		4.3	16.2	7.5	100.0
	6	1804	29.7	43.7	0.2	5.3	15.1	5.9	99.9
	Sum	4424	34.5	37.2	0.1	4.5	15.8	8.0	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	2	50.0			50.0			100.0
	5	16	43.8	25.0	12.5	6.3	12.5		100.1
	6	3		100.0					100.0
	Sum	21	38.1	33.3	9.5	9.5	9.5		99.9
Activities	4	19		5.3		10.5	84.2		100.0
	5	27		33.3	3.7	11.1	48.1	3.7	99.9
	6	21	9.5	47.6	4.8	4.8	33.3		100.0
	Sum	67	3.0	29.9	3.0	9.0	53.7	1.5	100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4	68	55.9	29.4	7.4	5.9		1.5	100.1
	5	126	51.6	33.3	5.6	4.0	2.4	3.2	100.1
	6	74	43.2	31.1	8.1	9.5	1.4	6.8	100.1
	Sum	268	50.4	31.7	6.7	6.0	1.5	3.7	100.0
	Total	5242	35.6	36.3	0.5	4.8	15.4	7.4	100.0

and compare/contrast were the only reading comprehension skills that were developed by more than 7% of the reading comprehension methodology. Sixty percent of the methodology was devoted to the development of these skills leaving 40% to develop the remaining 18 comprehension skills. As shown in Table 6.13 (p.272) very little of the reading comprehension methodology was designed to increase students' comprehension of main ideas, sequence, character traits, predicting, figurative language, classifying, outlining, summarizing, synthesis, judgments of worth, validity, appropriateness, fact of fiction, emotional response, imagery, identification with characters, or author's use of language. Overall, the reorganizational and evaluation levels of reading comprehension had been neglected and given the literary philosophy of the authors one would have expected more than 15% of the reading comprehension methodology to be involved with those reading skills belonging to the appreciative level of comprehension. It should be noted, however, that the inferential level of reading comprehension was required by the methodology at least as much as the literal which indicates a consistency with the authors' belief that reading was a thinking process.

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in Young Canada Readers. As there was no overview of curriculum content in the Young Canada Readers series a comparison between that content and the program's reading comprehension methodology could not be made. Generally, however, the authors' designation of the reading skill developed by the methodology was consistent with the writer's coding.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Young Canada Readers. In Young Canada Readers the content was organized in units. The frequency and percentage of the content type in those units is presented in Table 6.15.

Poetry and prose categories of animal, nature and moral selections, fables, and tales represent the most predominant categories although there is really a very small percentage of the last three types of reader content. Compared with the Canadian Ginn Basic series there are less moralistic, realistic, animal/nature, adventure, geographical, and historical selections in Young Canada Readers. And, conversely, there are more fantasy, myths, poetry, and stories of Canadian life than there were in Canadian Ginn Basic. From grades four to six the myths, legends, fables, tales, and moralistic stories have certainly decreased while humorous and adventure stories have increased. It is interesting to note that the number of fantasy stories plunges downward in grade five only to surface in greater quantity at the six level. Very little of the content deals with Canadian life, people in other lands, science or technology. However, informational material is conveyed through biographical and historical selections such as the story of the "Wright Brothers." The frequency and percentage of the Canadian prose content in Young Canada Readers is presented below:

Table 6.15

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in Young Canada Readers

	Grade 4		Grade 5		Total	
Content	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	99	69.2	115	80.4	325	69.4
Prose:						
Animals/nature	5	3.5	9	5.7	23	4.9
Morals/values	6	4.2	12	7.6	20	4.3
Fables/tales	7	4.9	10	6.3	20	4.3
Real./interper.	6	4.2	4	2.5	16	3.4
Fantasy	6	4.2	2	1.3	15	3.2
Religious	5	3.5	1	0.6	14	3.0
Canadian life	5	3.5	4	2.5	13	2.8
Humor/nonsense	2	1.4	3	1.9	12	2.6
Myths/legends	3	2.1	3	1.9	9	1.9
Adventure	0	0.0	1	0.6	8	1.7
Historical	1	0.7	3	1.9	7	1.5
Biography	1	0.7	2	1.3	7	1.5
Geography	1	0.7	1	0.6	5	1.1
Drama	2	1.4	2	1.3	5	1.1
Science	0	0.0	1	0.6	2	0.4
Mod. Techn.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

	No. Prose Selections	Canadian Content	
		Frequency	Percentage
Reader 4	44	9	20.5
Reader 5	43	11	25.6
Reader 6	56	10	17.9
Total	143	30	21.0

As indicated above the percentage of Canadian prose content in Young Canada Readers was not high and this is further supported from reading the content.

Character qualities of courage, sacrifice, hard work, and generosity surfaced in certain stories. Themes of brotherhood, justice, becoming a man, acceptance of ethnic groups were also portrayed in particular selections. Generally, as with the preceding series, there was a variety of types of selections which were primarily narrative in style. Narration and poetry were again the predominant written forms in the readers as illustrated in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Young Canada Readers

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	43	30.1	52	32.9	57	34.1	152	32.5
Descriptive/ Informational	0	0.0	4	2.5	4	2.4	8	1.7
Expository	5	3.5	3	1.9	6	3.6	14	3.0
Literary - Poetry	99	69.2	115	72.8	111	66.5	325	69.4
- Drama	2	1.4	2	1.3	2	1.2	6	1.3
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Compared with Canadian Ginn Basic the Young Canada Readers contained a greater number of poems, fewer narrative selections and fewer descriptive and expository selections. For the most part the reading comprehension methodology accompanying the reader selections was considered to be appropriate by the writer. However, the writer felt the reading skills in the evaluation level could have been developed more in relation to moralistic, realistic, and fantasy type selections and that more skills in the appreciation level could have been highlighted in relation to animal/nature, fantasy, and fables/tales.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in the Field of Reading

The suggestions made by the authors of Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers for reading comprehension instruction included using a systematic and sequential approach, questioning, discussion, and setting purposes. All of these ideas were frequently advocated by reading authorities between 1950 and 1970, and are still advocated today.

The increase in the number of purposes in these series may also have been partly due to the authors' knowledge of developments in reading research for by the middle 1960's research had certainly supported the belief long held by many reading educators that improved comprehension resulted when a reader was given purposes prior to reading (Henderson, 1965; Niles, 1963). If this was not known by the authors the effect was the same--a consistent relationship between research and practice, and a consistent relationship between intuition and research.

Many of the theoretical developments in reading at this time, however, did not seem to have influenced the reading series. Nowhere, for example, were there problem-solving situations in the methodology, and nowhere was there evidence of Stauffer's directed-reading-thinking-activity. Attention to critical reading was also neglected in the series according to the methodology coded which showed that evaluative skills had not been developed by the methodology.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in Other Fields

The stress on reading comprehension in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers was in keeping with the educational thinking of the late fifties and sixties which stressed the importance of intellectual development. The curriculum of the schools had become concerned with the cognitive development of students due partly to the influence of psychologists. It is possible that the emphasis on teaching specific skills which belonged to different cognitive levels found in these series was influenced either directly or indirectly by the work of Bloom (1956) who had proposed a hierarchical model of cognition and Guilford (1959) who had proposed a model of the intellect. Certainly Russell,whose theory characterized Canadian Ginn Basic,was thoroughly acquainted with developments in the field of psychology. It is possible that the extreme use of questioning in Young Canada Readers may have been influenced by the many studies in the early to mid 1960's of classroom questioning carried out by curriculum specialists.

Summary

It seems that traces of theoretical developments in the reading field which occurred approximately fifteen years before the publication of *Canadian Ginn Basic* and *Young Canada Readers* were evident in these series. This was especially true as regards the cognitive skills and child development concepts which were emphasized in both reading series. These were also very prevalent concepts in the professional literature of the reading field between 1950 and the late 1960's which illustrates the influence of certain current theoretical developments in the reading field in *Canadian Ginn Basic* and *Young Canada Readers*. Many current developments, however, did not have an impact on the series. This is demonstrated by the lack of a problem-solving orientation, directed-reading-thinking-activities, and critical thinking activities in the series.

Again, it seems that the series just missed being affected by certain developments which means that if the pattern now established continues it would be another ten to fifteen years before these would carry over into Canadian elementary reading series. Perhaps in the next series we will see evidence of reading as a psycholinguistic, information-processing activity and the results of the linguistic research, research in learning from text, research in semantic memory, and research in discourse analysis which colored the professional literature from the middle 1960's on.

Chapter 7

EMPHASIS ON LANGUAGE ARTS: 1974-1979

This chapter brings events in curriculum and reading closer to the present and helps to illuminate connections between the past and present. Due to the short time covered here developments in reading are synthesized in one section which has no divisions. This is even more appropriate considering that the interrelatedness between reading, psychology, linguistics, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics which was so apparent in the last half of the preceding period continued to characterize the years between 1974 and 1979. Indeed, this may be deemed the outstanding characteristic of the period, 1965 to 1980, in future historical analysis (Robinson, 1977).

Examples of reading research are given which serve primarily to make the reader aware of the variety of investigations that have recently taken place. There is only enough room for examples as the research has mushroomed astronomically and will continue to do so as long as funds are channelled toward such current projects as the cognitive research being carried out at the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois.

In this current period three Canadian elementary reading series published between 1971 and 1976 were analyzed: Starting Points in Reading published by Ginn, the Nelson Language Development Reading Program published by Nelson, and Strategies for Language Arts published by Gage. Just the word "language" in two of these titles gives a hint of the emphasis on language arts found in these series. It should be noted, too, that an adjunct program called Starting Points in Language was correlated with Starting Points in Reading.

Major Curriculum Trends: 1974-1979

The existence of the "behavioristic" and "humanistic" philosophies has continued through the seventies in American education. A recent article in Educational Leadership illustrates this. In "Behaviorism and Humanism: A Synthesis" (1977) both Combs and Popham put forth their views. Perhaps the state of affairs in curriculum is adequately summarized by Zais (1976) when he stated:

> The past few years have seen a reassertion of the business-efficiency movement in curriculum. Evidence of this direction in curriculum development is indicated by recent emphasis on such particulars as behavioral objectives, accountability, national assessment, performance-contracting, and performance-based curricula. Nevertheless, the humanistic-progressive thrust continues to manifest itself, mainly under the banner of "open education," "open classroom" curriculum concepts borrowed from the British primary school. (Zais, 1976, p. 73)

According to Caswell (1978), one of the second generation curriculum specialists (Kliebard, 1975), the revival of the "back to the basics" and competency-based education movement was a reassertion of the curriculum developments in the late 1950's and 1960's. From the description of curriculum developments given in Chapters Five and Six it seems that, indeed, he may be right: that legacies from the past do continue to shape educational change, in general, and curriculum change, in particular.

Major Developments in Reading: 1974-1979

The controversy between the "skills" and "psycholinguistic" theories of reading still continues (Goodman, 1978) and criticism of both have appeared. For example, Melnik (1976) stated, "We have preoccupied ourselves in teaching and research with dissecting and fragmenting the reading process into a plethora of miniscule skills divorced from one another" (p. 46). And Eisner (1976) speaking at the Claremont Reading Conference expressed his feeling that:

> The mechanization of reading skills unassisted by human imagination will, I believe, create mechanical readers, whose ability to perceive nuance, to appreciate analogy, to penetrate metaphor, and to understand implication will be seriously limited. (p. 5)

Criticism launched at the psycholinguistic models of reading has come from people such as Mosenthal (1976) who in a cogent well-informed article analyzed the underlying paradigms of Goodman's theory showing its use of paradigms from the structural and transformational schools of linguistics. Because of this Mosenthal argued that Goodman's theory was confusing and outmoded. Since then Goodman has argued that Mosenthal failed to understand the perspective of the theory.

Since 1974 and presently cognitive science has developed almost to the point of becoming a discipline of its own as theories of discourse processing have continued to be refined and are supported by an ever-broadening research base.

Kintsch (1974, 1976, 1977, 1979), for example, has continued to develop his theory of the representation of meaning in memory which he believes is the basis for the development of psychological processes models that should eventually "provide an account of . . . the use and acquisition of knowledge and the comprehension and memorization of text" (Kintsch, 1974, p. 9). In Kintsch's model the text base is mapped out according to propositions which consist of arguments and a network of concepts. Another model of the representation of the logical and semantic structure of knowledge acquired from discourse was created by Frederiksen (1975) who employed concepts from the work of Fillmore, Halliday, Chafe, and Van Dijk in order to illustrate the semantic structures underlying text. In particular, Frederiksen was concerned with the role of context and diagrammed the connections between concepts in passages which could then be compared to the reader's output. Another system for representing semantic and logical relations in text discourse was created by Meyer (1975) who used the case grammar of Fillmore and Grimes (1975) for representing semantic relations in text.

Research conducted by both Kintsch (1975, 1977) and Meyer (1971, 1975, 1977) has tended to produce similar results--that propositions high in the text (superordinate) are recalled far more than those lower in the text. Most of these research studies were concerned with analyzing the narrative or story form of a piece of text and did not look at the interaction of such factors as the reader's interest, purpose, or knowledge with the kind of information processed from reading text. Eventually researchers began to move in this direction. For example, Kintsch and Vipond (1977) wanted to move even further into the interaction of the reader's purpose and knowledge with his comprehension of text. Kintsch and Vipond introduced two new terms--"macrostructure" and "microstructure," macrostructure referring to the larger text structure and microstructure referring to the relations within and between sentences. However, Kintsch and Vipond admitted they had little to say with respect to the reader's knowledge although they believed it to be crucial to the reader's making appropriate inferences when reading text.

Recently schema theory has reemerged (Meyer, 1977) seen especially in the work of Rumelhart (1975, 1977); Rumelhart and Ortony (1977); and Adams and Collins (1977, 1979). Rumelhart (1975) outlined a theory of the cognitive schemata used by readers in comprehending narratives which is similar to the frames idea of Minsky (1975) and consistent with the ideas of Schank and Abelson (1975, 1977). Rumelhart's model of text comprehension is an interactive one which maintained that comprehension of discourse involved "top-down" processing and "bottom-up" processing.

These concepts of schema and schemata, of course, were not new. Bartlett (1932), as noted earlier, first discussed these which were also a very central part of the theory of Bruner and Ausubel; and Piaget could still be regarded as the most "preeminent schema theorist" (Anderson, 1977, p. 417). Schema contains the network of interrelations that is believed to generally hold among the constituents of the concept in question. Schemata are also data structures for representing the generic concepts stored in memory (Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977). The first step in comprehension of text, according to Rumelhart and Ortony, was the instantiation of schema after which the process of activating sub-schemata or dominating schemata could continue. These schemata were at all levels of abstraction which made them much more of an internalized structure in semantic memory than had been in previous models. Schemata were, in fact, the "building blocks of human information-processing" (Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977, p. 111) and performed various functions: primarily to aid comprehension , to create records of experience and memory, allow prediction, and serve as a vehicle for inferential reasoning. It was this idea of inferencing that had so far been very difficult to build into models of cognitive activity.

Up to this point text or discourse analysis had only been concerned with narrative forms. Recently the analysis of other text forms has become a topic of research and theory. Furniss (1978) compared the results of children's recall of propositions from narrative passages with those recalled from descriptive-expository passages using Kintsch's propositional system for mapping the text structure. The results of this study conducted in Canada supported the findings of previous research showing that propositions higher in the text structure were recalled more frequently than those lower and that fewer propositions were recalled from the more expository passages. Furniss had interviewed the students in her sample which allowed her to make observations about the reading strategies they used. Included in the variety of strategies employed by the subjects was chunking which supported the conclusions of previous research carried out by Latham (1973).

Criticism has been and is being addressed to models of text comprehension for their neglect of sociolinguistic considerations, affective aspects such as interest, and consideration of reading as a communication activity. Goetz (1979) has observed that "our attention must turn away from the fact of 'schematic' organization to the conditions which direct the formation of these active settings" (p. 302), and has concluded as a result of his own research that inferring from text involves many aspects of affect. Recent research in text comprehension has indicated that macro-level information is an important element in prose comprehension (Clark and Irwin, 1979) and has moved toward including sociolinguistic factors (Carey, 1979; Freedle, 1979; and Harste, 1979).

Theory about reading comprehension continues to develop. Rystrom (1977) has proposed that reading is a "matrixing event between the reader and text" (p. 197) and has explained the reading process in the following way:

> In the process of reading, the reader produces a small framework of meaning based upon the information on the page and his stored information. If there is a match, he continues slowly expanding the grid outward, sometimes by adding information provided by the author . . . (p. 195)

Once the reader establishes a pattern he then becomes free to comprehend on a much more general level. Rystrom's concept of reading suggests that readers bring additional information to the printed page and that they use strategies such as sampling, predicting and inferring when reading. Two other avenues which provide a direction for the development of more adequate reading theories are suggested by the work of Labercane (1979) who has attempted to make conceptual links between the theory of speech acts and reading acts; and the work of Giboney (1979) who has incorporated aspects from the philosophy of language, speech communication, and cognitive science in order to portray the reader as a recipient of meaningful communication. These last two were Canadian studies.

Research concerned with learning from text continued to increase between 1974 and 1979. This research investigated the effect of setting purposes prior to reading. Thomas and Augstein (1976), for example, directed readers to read a text passage which they would summarize while a second group was instructed to read the same passage on which they would write a multiple-choice test. The group who summarized the passage retained far more ideas of the passage's content. This was the same conclusion reached by Frase (1976) who had conducted studies to determine the effect of setting purposes.

In another study Vacca (1977) compared the effect of direct instructions given prior to reading with the use of study guides during reading and found that the group who had been given study guides retained and understood more of the material read.

Other studies continued to explore the effect of positioning adjunct questions within text material on the retention and understanding of the information read. These demonstrated for the most part that adjunct questions improved retention and comprehension (Mayer, 1976).

Taylor and Berkowitz (1979) compared the effectiveness of three study techniques on sixth grade students' comprehension and memory for expository text. The study techniques included writing a one-sentence summary after reading each of the 12 paragraphs in a 700-word social studies passage, following a study guide that directed the reading and presented questions to be answered in writing after each page of text, and reading the passage and answering questions at the end of the text. The results showed that the students' memory for expository text and superordinate ideas was enhanced by the generation of the one-sentence summary for each paragraph read. In an investigation designed to induce levels of semantic processing by inserting appropriate postquestions into text Friedman (1977) found that inference and paraphrase questions produced superior learning of questioned material and concluded that authors of instructional material should insert postquestions to facilitate comprehension. Perez (1978) investigated the hypothesis that children's comprehension and memory skills for written language are determined, in part, by those processing strategies employed spontaneously to encode information into memory. Different levels of encoding were induced in children's comprehension and memory skills for written language are determined, in part, by those processing strategies employed spontaneously to encode information into memory. Different levels of encoding were induced in children from two grade levels by asking subjects to answer questions at three levels: (1) a verbatim or shallow level where the child was asked to retain a particular bit of information; (2) lexical inference level, where the child was asked to comprehend the lexical message by performing elaborations beyond simple retention required by the first level; and (3) contextual inference or deepest level where the child was asked to make conclusions or draw suppositions. The data from this investigation suggested that children in fourth and sixth grades could be induced to make inferences to answer questions, that inferential operations can affect the encoding and storing of information in memory, and that the type of questions answered affects the comprehension of written language.

Research into the effect of study strategies on reading comprehension seemed to suggest the superiority of subject-generated underlining of key concepts (Bialeck, Bialeck, and Wark, 1977; Chodos, Gould and Rusch, 1977; Fairbanks and Costello, 1977); advance organizers (G ynn, 1978; Rickards, 1975); imagery (Kulhavy and Swenson, 1975; Rickards and Hatcher, 1978; Steingart, 1975); and mapping (Davidson and Triplett, 1979).

In 1975 MacGinitie advocated that research was needed to study the strategies, operations, and cues that different people use in understanding written language. He felt that research had clearly shown the effects of written language on comprehension and recommended that instructional materials be assessed in terms of their range of cognitive demands. Other areas for research suggested by MacGinitie included investigating whether the same tasks could be presented in ways that required fewer or simpler cognitive operations and that the differences of various operations be studied with children of different ages.

This view seems similar to the ideas expressed by Jenkinson (1976) in her address "The Parameters of Knowledge about Meaning in Reading" given at the Claremont Reading Conference. In discussing the contributions of linguistics, psychology, philosophy, and semantics to reading Jenkinson highlighted two neglected areas within reading comprehension theory and research: thinking in a continuum of different types of language which have functions in both a written and spoken mode, and the need to create a link between cognition theory and research which included a knowledge of cognitive information-processing and intellectual development. This latter need was also addressed by Athey (1976) who noted that Piaget's theories and research had not yet been directly applied to reading (with the exception of at least Rawson's research in 1969) and that the developmental side to learning and reading had been neglected. Recently researchers have begun to link Piaget's work more directly to reading (Dreyer, 1977; Kretschmer, 1975).

Theorists and researchers like Rumelhart, Ortony, Meyer, and Anderson believe that the research on text discourse is now sufficient to suggest implications for educational practice.

Meyer (1977), while advocating the need for a comprehensive theory of learning from prose as well as developmental research felt that the work in text structure could be used as a diagnostic tool where the reader's output would be compared to the text passage structure, that it demonstrated the need for written materials to be well organized, and that it allowed much more specific passage-related questions to be asked. The fact that research had shown higher level propositions in passages were more often and better recalled than those lower in the passage led Rumelhart and Ortony (1977) to conclude that students needed help acquiring appropriate knowledge structures in texts, that teachers should use examples more often, and that metaphor was a powerful instructional device.

A translation from psycholinguistic theory and research into classroom instructional strategies is now finding its way into the literature (Pearson, 1976, 1978) as are instructional strategies based on discourse research (Indrisano, 1978; Marshall, 1976). Recently at the National Reading Conference (1979) several sessions were devoted to the implications from research for comprehension instruction. These implications were particularly stressed by Otto (1979) and Pearson (1979). Pearson reviewed the theoretical and empirical developments in the comprehension of text structure over the past twenty years from which he drew implications for comprehension instruction practices. From the research on microstructures, where Pearson stressed the contribution of Robertson's study of connectives carried out in 1969 and the research on sentence-combining; and from the research on macrostructures particularly story schemata. Pearson made specific recommendations: that reading materials be written in a well-formed manner; that complex sentences should be cohesive; that sentence-combining should be used as an instructional technique; and that children should analyze the authors' general framework or structure of his writing. Pearson also called for more research on comprehension instruction. Instructional research in comprehension presented at the National Reading Conference (1979) showed the desirability of using Stauffer's directed reading thinking activity (Policastro, Adelman, Goldberg, Seeder and Sulzby, 1979) and mapping (Davidson and Triplett, 1979) for improving children's reading comprehension.

Otto (1977, 1979) and his associates at the University of Wisconsin have been creating a systematic instructional program for developing comprehension which is based upon a skills approach. Otto's rationale was based upon a pragmatic philosophy--the need to improve children's reading comprehension. Other reading educators have adopted a highly systematic skills-approach to teaching reading comprehension (Duffy and Sherman, 1978; Mangrum, 1977). Others are somewhere in between--systematic in their overall approach but not in offering guidelines for reading comprehension instruction (Burns, 1976; May, 1977). Writers such as Burns (1976) provide examples of activities often in the form of workbook or practice exercises which are supposed to "teach" a comprehension skill as in the following exercise:

> Which is Best?
>
> Put X beside the best name for each story.
>
> Janey and Tom had always wanted a pet. Janey wanted a usual pet like a kitten or a pup, but Tom wanted an

unusual pet. He really didn't care what it was as long as it was unusual. It had to be one that none of his friends had.

One night as Tom was reading the newspaper, he found what he was looking for. "Dad, Mom, Janey! Guess what! A man wants to give away a pet raccoon!" he cried.

After much talking, everyone agreed that the new pet was a good idea. When Tom called about the raccoon, the man said, "You can pick up Puffy tomorrow. Give him a good home."

The next day Tom asked all of his friends over. He couldn't wait to show them his unusual pet!

___ A Usual Pet
_X_ A New and Different Pet
___ That Crazy Raccoon

Bob watched an eagle circling overhead. "I didn't know there were eagles in this park," he said.

Just then Bob heard a whistle. "That's Dad's signal," Bob thought. "I hope it isn't time to go home."

Bob found Dad near the stream. As Bob came closer, he saw that Dad was trying to coax a raccoon down from a tree. "That crazy raccoon ran off with my watch," Dad said.

"I know how to get it back," Bob told him. Bob ran into the woods and picked some berries. Then he ran back to the tree and held the red berries up to the raccoon.

As soon as the raccoon saw the berries, he dropped the watch. Bob caught the watch and left the berries for the raccoon to eat.

___ Bob's Trip
___ The Signal
_X_ That Crazy Raccoon

(p. 203)

Questioning is often suggested as a technique for developing comprehension which is supported by recent research as being a valid technique (Perez, 1978; Ruddell, 1977; and Stauffer, 1977).

Developments in Canadian Educational History: 1974-1979

Within the previous section it was evident that Canadian reading researchers are well aware of existing events in reading and are even moving beyond the parameters established (Furniss, 1978; Giboney, 1979; Labercane, 1979). This is further illustrated in one of the recent Canadian professional texts on language arts (Thorn and Braun, 1974).

Canadian education in the seventies has been generally described by Lawr and Gidney (1973) as a period of retreat from optimism, a period where there is frustration in Canadian education due to declining enrollments, lack of funding, and a low public confidence in education. Katz (1974) called it a period of uncertainty and conflicting views.

It appears that American ideas are having their influence. Competency-based education is one of the most recent reform movements to have swept American education (Hertzberg, 1976) and within Canada there also seems to be a move toward competency-based education (Morgan, 1976). This is supported by such documents as the Harder Report (1977), a report on Alberta education which called for the establishment of core curricula and the implementation of standards of mastery in the schools which would be set by curriculum committees at the provincial level. Earlier announcements also seem to support this idea. In 1976 Wells, Ontario's Minister of Education, stated that a core curriculum for Ontario's schools would be instituted which would stress basic skills (Bognar, 1977).

Also in 1976 British Columbia's Minister of Education announced that schools would "return to the basics" by the fall of 1977 and that a core curriculum had been established with goals prescribed for each level of instruction (Bognar, 1977). Therefore, it would seem that a concern for standards, the basics, and accountability will earmark Canadian education in the 1970's and early 1980's.

Did American ideas also have an influence on Canadian elementary reading series published between 1971 and 1976?

Interrelation between Characteristics of the Reading Series and Developments in the Field of Reading and Other Fields

The reading series analyzed in this period, Strategies for Language Arts, Starting Points in Reading, and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program, are currently adopted in most of Canada's Provinces. How long they will remain adoptions can only be determined by future events.

Reading Theory

There is no discussion of reading theory in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. From analyzing the series, however, it becomes clear that much of the program's concern is with exposing children to literary experiences and a wide range of language arts activities that include discussion, drama, research, and creative writing.

Reading skills do receive attention and are classified within the categories of Collecting, Organizing, Presenting, and Evaluating. Examples of these are:

Collecting

Setting purposes
Setting pre-questions
Locating topic sentences
Skimming
Notetaking
Word meanings
Main ideas, details
Typographical clues

Organizing

Notetaking
Essay writing
Diagramming
Sequence
Synthesis
Paragraph patterns
Outlining
Summarizing

Presenting

Form
Relevancy
Communication medium

Evaluating

Ongoing
Related to purposes
Effectiveness of each step in a project

Within the skills listed above are comprehension and study skills which were to be developed through procedures given in the manuals and study books. Many of the activities suggested in the program were designed to take pupils into various curriculum areas. An example of this is the map-reading game that uses Canadian geography in the teacher's guidebook to *Kites and Cartwheels*, the reader commonly used in grade five.

Very little discussion of reading theory takes place in *Starting Points in Reading* although the authors (1971) describe the following as underlying assumptions of this series:

> that a child thinks only to the extent that he can use language and that language is the tool that enables him to relate new experiences to what he already knows, to come to conclusions about the new experiences, and to modify and extend his understandings in the light of the new experiences; in short, it is language that allows the child to make sense of the world around him.
>
> that the child who comes to school has already through concrete experiences and real-life situations acquired the ability to use language, and that the school as far as is possible should provide the same kind of learning environment.

> that any definition of reading must recognize that reading begins with graphic symbols but that the process of reading is not only the decoding of the symbol but the reconstruction of meaning--meaning that is not in the print but in the mind of the reader.
>
> that to read with meaning the child not only applies word study skills--"What is this word?" "Does this word sound right?"--but must also apply reasoning skills--"Does this sentence make sense?" "What do I already know about this topic?" "Could this statement be true?"
>
> that critical reading is an integral part of the reading process rather than a more sophisticated skill to be taught at a higher grade level.
>
> that in reading critically the child applies to the task the facts and ideas he already possesses and that the more "input" he can bring to the understanding of meaning, the easier the reading process will be.
>
> that the child's input is the result of his sensory experiences--what he has observed, touched, experimented with, listened to, reacted emotionally to--and the result of his language experiences--what he has thought about and talked about; and that a language arts program must use and extend the child's experiential background.
>
> that reading is done for a purpose and that the "output," the response to what is read, whether it be discussion, drama, writing, research, or more reading, is not enrichment but an integral part of the reading process.
>
> that there is no division between the input to the reading process and the output of the reading process; and that the major elements of language communication--listening, speaking, writing, and reading--are interdependent functions and should be developed simultaneously.
>
> that the understandings of a child brings to the reading process and takes from it are not restricted by subject areas and that language arts learning is interdisciplinary in scope. (p. vii)

These assumptions reveal that the authors believed reading to be a language-based, cognitive, meaningful activity that is part of the language arts. It also seems that comprehension especially at the critical level was a concern of the authors.

Russell's theory of reading so evident in the preceding reading series published by Ginn also seems to have found its way into the present series. For example, the authors (1971) state:

> If he [the reader] is to derive maximum value from the reading process he must be able to read literally, that is, to read accurately; read critically, that is, to interpret what he reads; read creatively, that is, to evaluate and apply what he reads; to locate and select information relevant to his purpose; and to organize and present information in an appropriate form. (p. xiii)

Russell's description of reading is clearly reflected in this statement.

The assumptions underlying Starting Points in Reading are similar to those which form the basis of Strategies for Language Arts. According to Thorn and Braun (1971) Strategies was based on the following principles:

> 1. Language is a single process with four closely related and interdependent facets: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
> 2. Speaking and writing are methods of representing ideas in language symbols; listening and reading are methods of understanding and interpreting those symbols.
> 3. Language grows in relation to the experiences of the individual learner.
> 4. Language growth and conceptual growth are concomitant.
> 5. Language learning and conceptual growth are facilitated when the four areas of language are applied to a single experience.
> 6. Language is an instrument of thought and is best developed in situations requiring the learners to use it as a tool of thinking. (p. v)

These principles indicate that the authors of Strategies believed reading to be a thinking process. That they were concerned with developing children's interpretative and critical reading abilities is demonstrated in the following statement by the authors (1971):

> Unless readers understand the total meaning intended by the author and integrate it with their own experience, they are not reading. Reading requires that the reader go beyond the literal meaning of the words to recognize the full implication of what the author has written. (p. viii)

The program's emphasis on language arts and reading comprehension is further demonstrated by the organizational pattern in the guide books and material in the accompanying skill books.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in the Field of Reading

The view of reading as a cognitive skills activity and as one of the language arts found in all three series studied in this period was a view of reading that had remained in the literature all through the seventies although it had surfaced as an innovative trend in the sixties. Therefore, current developments in reading theory can be said to have influenced Starting Points, Strategies, and Nelson Language Development. On the other hand, the concept of reading as a problem-solving activity which had emerged in the sixties and continued into the seventies had not been integrated within the reading series. Between the late 1960's and early seventies several models and theories of reading had appeared. Within these reading was described as a linguistic and psycholinguistic activity, a communication activity, and an information-processing activity. Also, theories about discourse had evolved by the early seventies. None of these developments influenced the reading series.

Research on the effect of linguistic variables, study strategies, and text structure on reading comprehension accumulated between the middle 1960's and early 1970's. No evidence of the impact of these developments could be seen in the series. Thus developments in reading which occurred approximately ten years before the publication of Starting Points in Reading, the Nelson Language Development Reading Program, and Strategies for Language Arts had less influence on these Canadian reading series than on those studied in the previous two periods. But as happened with the previous series those analyzed here were becoming out of date as they were published because of the tremendous increase over the last few years in work related to reading. Since 1974, as described in the previous section, research into text analysis has increased as has the research concerned with learning from text. Perhaps the next series will reflect the influence of developments that have occurred in the field of reading between the late sixties and middle seventies.

Relation between Reading Theory and Developments in Other Fields

The strong thematic organization in Strategies for Language Arts, Starting Points in Reading, and the Nelson Language Development reading series where the language arts and other curriculum areas are integrated more than ever before could be said to indicate a progressive influence while the highly organized nature of these series might possibly be an indication of the scientific influence.

Characteristics of the reading comprehension methodology in these series illustrate both the impact and non-impact of developments in reading and other fields on the series.

Reading Comprehension Methodology

Within the organizational framework of the guide books to Starting Points in Reading, Strategies for Language Arts, and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program the traditional directed reading lesson format can be distinguished. Mostly from this section was the reading comprehension methodology coded. The results from coding this methodology in the Nelson Language Development Program are presented in Table 7.1.

Two characteristics of the reading comprehension methodology shown in Table 7.1 are of particular interest--the increase in skill exercises (599 here compared to 288 in Young Canada Readers), and the decrease in questions (324 here compared to 4428 in Young Canada Readers).

Table 7.1 shows details to be the most frequently recorded reading comprehension skill demanded by the methodology followed by the skills of cause-effect, compare-contrast, imagery and predicting outcomes. Those skills least often served by the methodology are figurative language, those in the reorganization level--classifying, outlining, summarizing, synthesizing, and those in the evaluation level--reality/fantasy, fact/opinion, adequacy/validity, appropriateness, and worth. These findings are further supported by the information in Table 7.2 which presents the reading comprehension methodology coded by level of reading comprehension.

Table 7.2 shows that the reading comprehension methodology in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program was at the

Table 7.1

Reading Comprehension Methodology in the Nelson Language Reading Development Series Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

Percentage of methodology related to skills

	Gr	Freq. no. Coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident.chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	71	56.3			1.4	19.7	4.2	4.2									1.4		1.4	1.4			9.9	99.9
	5	107	43.0	4.7		1.9	22.4	2.8	13.1	0.9								3.7	0.9	0.9	1.9			2.8	99.9
	6	83	54.2	1.2		1.2	2.17	6.0		1.2										2.4	1.2			9.6	99.9
	Sum	261	50.2	2.3		1.5	21.5	4.2	6.5	0.8								1.9	0.4	1.5	1.5			6.9	100.0
Directives	4	68	42.6	4.4		2.9	7.4	8.8	7.4	1.5		1.5	2.9								5.9	4.4	7.4	2.9	100.0
	5	52	1.9	3.8	3.8	11.5	9.6	7.7	13.5	3.8			1.9	1.9	5.8		1.9	1.9	3.8	11.5	1.9	1.9	3.8	7.7	99.6
	6	60	25.0	1.7		11.7	8.3		8.3	3.3			5.0							13.3	3.3	8.3	5.0	6.7	99.9
	Sum	180	25.0	3.3	1.1	8.3	8.3	5.6	9.4	2.8		0.6	3.3	0.6	1.7		0.6	0.6	1.1	7.8	3.9	5.0	5.6	5.6	100.2
Questions	4	139	35.3			2.2	21.0	4.3	4.3	1.4	0.7				1.4	0.7			2.2	0.7	9.4	0.7	0.7	15.1	100.1
	5	75	18.7	1.3		6.7	14.7	1.3	12.0	1.3					2.7			2.7	1.3	18.7	4.0	4.0		10.7	100.1
	6	110	33.6			4.5	18.2	7.3	3.6						2.7	0.9			3.6	2.7	6.4	3.6		12.7	99.8
	Sum	324	30.9	0.3		4.0	18.5	4.6	5.9	0.9	0.3				2.2	0.6		0.6	2.5	5.6	7.1	2.5	0.3	13.3	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	23	56.5		4.3		8.7				4.3											13.0	13.0		99.8
	5	42	45.2	4.8	4.8	2.4	4.8		2.4		7.1		2.4								14.3	7.1	2.4	2.4	100.1
	6	39	46.2	2.6	7.7	7.7	10.3				2.6	2.6	7.7		2.6		2.6		2.6			5.1			100.3
	Sum	104	48.1	2.9	5.8	3.8	7.7		1.0		4.8	1.0	3.8		1.0		1.0		1.0		5.8	7.7	3.8	1.0	100.2
Activities	4	16	12.5			6.3		12.5															62.5	6.3	100.1
	5	26				3.8			3.8										3.8			15.4	73.1		99.9
	6	17	17.6			5.9			5.9											5.9			58.8	5.9	100.0
	Sum	59	8.5			5.1		3.4	3.4											1.7	1.7	6.8	66.1	3.4	100.1
Skill Exercises (W)	4	167	53.3	6.0	7.8	1.2	15.6	1.8		1.8	1.2	1.8	0.6				4.2	0.6				0.6	0.6	3.0	100.1
	5	183	42.1	7.7	5.5	7.1	13.7	2.2	1.1		0.5	3.8	3.3				1.6		1.1			1.1	1.1	8.2	100.1
	6	145	47.6	5.5	11.0	7.6	10.3	2.1		2.1	1.4	1.4	0.7		2.1		5.5						1.4	1.4	100.1
	Sum	495	47.5	6.5	7.9	5.3	13.3	2.0	0.4	1.2	1.0	2.4	1.6		0.6		3.6	0.2	0.4			0.6	1.0	4.4	99.9
	Total	1423	39.8	3.4	3.3	4.6	14.4	3.4	4.1	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.3	0.1	1.1	0.1	1.5	0.6	1.0	2.6	2.9	2.2	4.1	6.7	100.1

Table 7.2

Reading Comprehension Methodology in the *Nelson Language Reading Development* Series Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Percentage of methodology related to levels						
			Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	71	57.7	28.2		1.4	2.8	9.9	100.0
	5	107	59.8	29.0		5.6	2.8	2.8	100.0
	6	83	56.6	28.9		1.2	3.6	9.6	99.9
	Sum	261	58.2	28.7		3.1	3.1	6.9	100.0
Directives	4	68	36.8	38.2	4.4		17.6	2.9	99.9
	5	52	11.5	44.2	3.8	13.5	19.2	7.7	99.9
	6	60	26.7	31.7	5.0		30.0	6.7	100.1
	Sum	180	26.1	37.8	4.4	3.9	22.2	5.6	100.0
Questions	4	139	29.5	38.8	0.7	4.3	11.5	15.1	99.9
	5	75	18.7	37.3		6.7	26.7	10.7	100.1
	6	110	23.6	43.6		7.3	12.7	12.7	99.9
	Sum	324	25.0	40.1	0.3	5.9	15.4	13.3	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	23	60.9	8.7	4.3		26.1		100.0
	5	42	54.8	9.5	9.5		23.8	2.4	100.0
	6	39	51.3	23.1	12.8	7.7	5.1		100.0
	Sum	104	54.8	14.4	9.6	2.9	17.3	1.0	100.0
Activities	4	16	12.5	18.8			62.5	6.3	100.1
	5	26		7.7			92.3		100.0
	6	17	17.6	11.8			64.7	5.9	100.0
	Sum	59	8.5	11.9			76.3	3.4	100.1
Skill Exercises (W)	4	167	76.6	10.8	3.6	4.8	1.2	3.0	100.0
	5	183	63.9	15.3	7.7	2.7	2.2	8.2	100.0
	6	145	66.2	20.0	3.4	7.6	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Sum	495	68.9	15.2	5.1	4.8	1.6	4.4	100.0
	Total	1423	48.0	26.0	3.1	4.3	11.9	6.7	100.0

literal level of reading comprehension more than any other level and reemphasizes that the levels of reorganization and evaluation were demanded the least by the methodology.

Relation between theory and methodology in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. The authors of the Nelson Language Development Reading Program had very little to say about reading but based on an analysis of the content of the program the writer concluded that the emphasis of the program was on children's linguistic and cognitive growth and the development of reading skills. Some of the specific skills that were judged important included notetaking, summarizing, outlining, synthesizing, main ideas, and details. Also considered important was the role of purposes in all language-centered activities. When comparing this list of reading skills with the reading comprehension methodology one finds some discrepancy. As illustrated in Table 7.1 most of these skills were not developed to any extent by the reading comprehension methodology with the exception of reading for details and cause-effect relationships. The fact that 48.0% of the coded reading comprehension methodology was at the literal level of comprehension and only 26.0 at the inferential also suggests a discrepancy between the cognitive emphasis of the program and the actual reading comprehension methodology provided. It must be noted, however, that the attention here is directed toward reading comprehension while many of the program's activities although not specifically directed toward reading comprehension were often directed toward developing general cognitive skills, research-type skills and other language-related abilities.

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. Reading skills that were included in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program had been listed by the authors in the categories of Collecting, Organizing, Presenting, and Evaluating. As noted earlier, the skills of reading for details and cause-effect relationships were those most emphasized by the reading comprehension methodology which suggests a discrepancy between the stated curriculum content of the program and the actual reading comprehension methodology. However, some of these skills may very well have been developed to some extent by other projects and activities presented in the program.

Usually there was agreement between the authors' designation of a skill developed by the methodology and that designated by the writer.

Relation between reader content and methodology in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. The authors of the Nelson Language Development Reading Program made it quite clear that one of the basic objectives of their series was to provide Canadian school children with an opportunity to read Canadian literature. Before every selection, in fact, a short biographical note about the Canadian author is given. The type of content found in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program is presented in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in Nelson Language Development Reading Program

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	35	54.7	43	58.1	62	64.5	140	59.8
Prose:								
Read./Interper.	7	10.9	8	10.8	7	7.3	22	9.4
Adventure	4	6.3	4	5.4	8	8.3	16	6.8
Canadian life	4	6.3	5	6.8	5	5.2	14	6.0
Morals/values	3	4.7	5	6.8	5	5.2	13	5.6
Animals/nature	5	4.7	3	4.1	4	4.2	12	5.1
Myths/legends	8	12.5	1	1.4	1	1.0	10	4.3
Historical	2	3.1	1	1.4	5	5.2	8	3.4
Functional	2	3.1	1	1.4	3	3.1	6	2.6
Fantasy	1	1.6	4	5.4	1	1.0	6	2.6
Humour/nonsense	1	1.6	4	5.4	0	0.0	5	2.1
Geography	1	1.6	1	1.4	3	3.1	5	2.1
Drama	0	0.0	2	2.7	1	1.1	3	1.3
Science	1	1.6	1	1.4	1	1.0	3	1.3
Biography	0	0.0	1	1.4	2	2.1	3	1.3
Fables/tales	0	0.0	1	1.4	1	1.0	2	0.9
Mystery	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Mod. Tech.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Religious	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

As shown in Table 7.3 poetry constitutes the most predominant type of content in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program followed by realistic/interpersonal stories, stories of adventure, stories of Canadian life, and stories that have either a moralistic overtone or show concern for particular values. In comparison with the type of content in preceding readers, fables/tales, biographies, and religious material have decreased in quantity. Myths/legends, realistic/interpersonal, and adventure stories have increased while the number of humorous stories has remained somewhat constant. It should be noted that in the myths/legends category many selections were about Canadian Indian and Eskimo folklore.

With the exception of Canadian Reading Development the percentage of Canadian life stories in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program is higher than in other series reviewed thus far. Additional support for this is obtained from an analysis of the frequency and percentage of Canadian prose in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program which is shown below:

		Canadian Content	
	No. Prose Selections	Frequency	Percentage
Reader 4	31	15	48.4
Reader 5	30	10	33.3
Reader 6	33	16	48.5
Total	94	41	43.6

Almost half of the prose selections could be identified as having a strong Canadian orientation. These included stories about Eskimos and Indians referred to earlier.

Many stories portrayed boys and girls involved in various adventures. In one a severe storm arises while a boy is hunting. Through using common sense and behaving in a calm manner he handles the situation. In another story the children meet a ghost, in another they get lost in the fog. They even invent a time machine in another story. Other selections deal with real-life situations and interpersonal relationships which concern children. Children in these stories learn to cope with death, to act calmly in a fire, to accept their personal characteristics, and to cooperate with others. Through stories like these values such as the following surface: character qualities of courage, thoughtfulness (brotherhood), kindness, tolerance of others, generosity, humility, and quick thinking.

Information is also conveyed through the reader content. We learn a little about Canadian history and geography. For example, we are informed about the phenomena of the Sasquatch in western Canada, of the sightings of sea serpents in British Columbia, about the ordeals of the Japanese at the time of World War II, about being a bush pilot, and about the changing nature of the fishing industry. We also learn about Canadian hockey, news events, and animals. Some of this information is written in a descriptive-informative manner but much of it is narrative. As shown in Table 7.3 selections about sports, health, technology, biography, geography were among the categories least evident which would suggest that the descriptive or expository forms were also less evident. This is verified by the information in Table 7.4 which presents the frequency and percentage of the written forms found in the readers. Interestingly, the information in Table 7.4 also shows that the percentage of selections which have a functional form has increased.

Table 7.4

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	23	35.9	26	35.1	24	25.0	73	31.2
Descriptive/ Informational	4	6.3	2	2.7	6	6.3	12	5.1
Expository/ Informational	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Literary - Poetry	35	54.7	43	58.1	62	64.4	140	59.8
- Drama	0	0.0	2	2.7	1	1.0	3	1.3
Functional	2	3.1	1	1.4	3	3.1	6	2.6

The reading comprehension methodology that was presented to correspond with a reader selection was most often accepted by the writer as being suitable given the type and form of the selection's content. But there were occasions when the writer felt that skills in the inferential, appreciative, evaluation levels could have been added. This seems to be supported by the information in Table 7.2 which shows that the reading comprehension methodology for the evaluative and appreciative levels of comprehension represented 4.3% and 11.9% respectively. Given the high percentage of literary content, mostly poetry, one would have anticipated a higher percentage of the reading comprehension methodology to have been concerned with these three levels.

Methodology in Starting Points in Reading. The frequency and percentage of the reading comprehension methodology in Starting Points in Reading was similar to that in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program in terms of the reading comprehension skills and levels required by the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities. This is evident from the material in Table 7.5 which represents the results of coding the reading comprehension methodology according to skills of reading comprehension.

The information in Table 7.5 reveals that the most predominant reading comprehension skill developed by the methodology was details, followed by the skills of cause-effect, character traits, reacting to the author's language, compare-contrast, and main idea. With the exception of reacting to the author's language these had also been the most prevalent reading comprehension skills demanded by the reading comprehension methodology of the Nelson series.

Little attention was directed toward the development of such reading comprehension skills as sequence, predicting, figurative language, synthesizing, or judging the adequacy/validity of statements in Starting Points in Reading. This is brought out

Table 7.5

Reading Comprehension Methodology in *Starting Points in Reading* Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

	Gr	Freq. no. coded	Percentage of methodology related to skills																						
			Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident. chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	174	47.1	4.6	1.1	4.6	8.0	5.2	4.6	1.1		0.6	1.1			1.1		0.6			1.1	4.6		14.4	99.8
	5	143	54.5	0.7		4.2	4.2	7.7	0.7	0.7						0.7	1.4	0.7	0.7	1.4	0.7	4.9	1.4	15.4	100.0
	6	85	52.9	7.1		3.5		5.9							1.2		1.2			1.2		2.4	2.4	22.4	100.2
	Sum	402	51.0	3.7	0.5	4.2	5.0	6.2	2.2	0.7		0.2	0.5		0.2	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.7	0.7	4.2	1.0	16.4	99.5
Directives	4	114	18.4	5.3	0.9	7.9	4.4	5.3	9.6	7.9	1.8	1.8	7.0		3.5				1.8	3.5		4.4	1.8	14.9	100.2
	5	125	16.8	0.8	0.8	14.4	4.0	1.6	4.8	6.4	4.0	0.8	2.4				0.8		0.8	10.4	0.8	16.0	4.0	10.4	100.0
	6	54	20.4	1.9		7.4	1.9	1.9		1.9	1.9		1.9			1.9	1.9			14.8	3.7	11.1	5.6	22.2	100.4
	Sum	293	18.1	2.7	0.7	10.6	3.8	3.1	5.8	6.1	2.7	1.0	4.1		1.4	0.3	0.7		1.0	8.5	1.0	10.6	3.4	14.3	99.9
Questions	4	1180	20.9	3.1	0.1	3.7	17.7	10.3	2.2	4.9	0.2		0.3		1.9	2.9	0.1	0.3	3.3	3.0	3.1	6.9	1.9	13.1	99.9
	5	864	44.3	1.2		2.9	14.5	7.6	1.4	1.3	0.1	-	0.1		1.7	0.5	0.1	0.1	2.5	4.6	3.6	2.8	0.5	10.2	100.0
	6	832	50.8	1.1	0.1	2.8	13.8	5.2	1.9	1.2			0.1		0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.8	2.4	5.9	1.2	0.4	9.5	100.1
	Sum	2876	36.6	1.9	0.1	3.2	15.6	8.0	1.9	2.7	0.1		0.2		1.5	1.4	0.2	0.3	2.6	3.3	4.0	4.0	1.0	11.2	99.8
Skill Exercises (M)	4	99	9.1	8.1	10.1	2.0	12.1	2.0	3.0	7.1	8.1	3.0	1.0		5.1	2.0	8.1				1.0	12.1	2.0	4.0	99.9
	5	78	23.1	12.8	10.3	3.8	7.7	6.4	1.3	6.4	3.8	5.1	1.3		3.8	1.3	5.1					5.1	2.6		99.9
	6	59	25.4	8.5	8.5	5.1	6.8	11.9	1.7	3.4	5.1	5.1	1.7		5.1		5.1				5.1			1.7	100.2
	Sum	236	17.8	9.7	9.7	3.4	9.3	5.9	2.1	5.9	5.9	4.2	1.3		4.7	1.3	6.4				1.7	6.8	1.7	2.1	99.9
Activities	4	68	14.7	5.9	4.4	10.3		2.9	2.9	7.4	20.6	2.9			2.9				1.5		2.9	5.9	10.3	4.4	99.9
	5	53	9.4		3.8	1.9		3.8	9.4	3.8	1.9					1.9					5.7	13.2	39.6	5.7	100.1
	6	44	15.9	2.3	11.4	6.8		2.3	11.4	2.3	2.3		2.3									4.5	25.0	13.6	100.1
	Sum	165	13.3	3.0	6.1	6.7		3.0	7.3	4.8	9.7	1.2	0.6		1.2	0.6			0.6		3.0	7.9	23.6	7.3	99.9
Skill Exercises (W)	4	124	15.3	14.5	2.4	7.3	6.5	3.2	4.0	4.8		1.6	1.6		1.6	1.6	3.2	0.8	0.8	4.8	3.2	10.5	4.8	7.3	99.8
	5	76	27.6	14.5	3.9	2.6	9.2	3.9	3.9	2.6	1.3		2.6			1.3	3.9	1.3	2.6	3.9	3.9			10.5	99.5
	6	56	32.1	17.9	1.8		8.9	5.4	3.6		1.8	8.9			1.8	3.6	5.4			1.8		5.4	1.8		100.2
	Sum	256	22.7	15.2	2.7	4.3	7.8	3.9	3.9	3.1	0.8	2.7	1.6		1.2	2.0	3.9	0.8	1.2	3.9	2.7	6.3	2.7	6.6	100.0
Total		4228	33.9	3.5	1.1	4.0	12.3	7.0	2.5	3.1	1.0	0.5	0.7		1.5	1.3	0.8	0.3	2.0	3.1	3.3	4.9	2.2	11.0	100.0

even more vividly in Table 7.6 which depicts the reading comprehension methodology according to level of reading comprehension. From this table it can be seen that the inferential level of reading comprehension receives at least as much attention by the reading comprehension methodology as does the literal. This is also much like the picture presented in the Nelson series.

Relation between theory and methodology in *Starting Points in Reading*. To a certain extent some consistency exists between the authors' view and stated goals of reading in *Starting Points* and the reading comprehension methodology recorded by the writer. The authors had stressed that reading was a thinking activity where comprehension of print was the ultimate objective and the frequency with which the inferential level was demanded by the reading comprehension methodology would suggest a consistent relationship here. Specific reading skills had also been delineated by the authors and of these, as indicated in Table 7.5, the reading comprehension skills of details and cause-effect relations had certainly been most frequently developed by the reading comprehension methodology.

Other reading skills listed by the authors as being included in the program were developed very little if at all by the reading comprehension methodology. Included amongst these were the skills of main ideas, making comparisons, predicting outcomes, and sequence; and skills relating to the reorganization and evaluation levels which demonstrates an inconsistency between the author's statements of the program's goals and the reading comprehension methodology

Table 7.6

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Starting Points in Reading
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	174	56.9	19.5	1.7	1.7	5.7	14.4	99.9
	5	143	56.6	16.1		3.5	8.4	15.4	100.0
	6	85	52.9	16.5		2.4	5.9	22.4	100.1
	Sum	402	56.0	17.7	0.7	2.5	6.7	16.4	100.0
Directives	4	114	26.3	33.3	10.5	5.3	9.6	14.9	99.9
	5	125	24.8	24.8	7.2	1.6	31.2	10.4	100.0
	6	54	25.9	9.3	3.7	3.7	35.2	22.2	100.0
	Sum	293	25.6	25.3	7.8	3.4	23.5	14.3	99.9
Questions	4	1180	19.8	43.2	0.5	8.6	14.8	13.1	100.0
	5	864	35.4	37.7	0.2	5.0	11.5	10.2	100.0
	6	832	42.5	34.4	0.1	3.6	9.9	9.5	100.0
	Sum	2876	31.1	39.0	0.3	6.1	12.4	11.2	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	99	33.3	20.2	12.1	15.2	15.2	4.0	100.0
	5	78	53.8	17.9	10.3	10.3	7.7		100.0
	6	59	44.1	27.1	11.9	10.2	5.1	1.7	100.1
	Sum	236	42.8	21.2	11.4	12.3	10.2	2.1	100.0
Activities	4	68	26.5	22.1	23.5	4.4	19.1	4.4	100.0
	5	53	15.1	17.0	1.9	1.9	58.5	5.7	100.1
	6	44	31.8	20.5	4.5		29.5	13.6	99.9
	Sum	165	24.2	20.0	11.5	2.4	34.5	7.3	99.9
Skill Exercises (W)	4	124	24.2	33.9	3.2	8.1	23.4	7.3	100.1
	5	76	34.2	34.2	3.9	9.2	7.9	10.5	99.9
	6	56	35.7	33.9	10.7	10.7	8.9		99.9
	Sum	256	29.7	34.0	5.1	9.0	15.6	6.6	100.0
	Total	4228	33.4	34.0	2.2	5.9	13.6	11.0	100.1

presented for implementing these goals.

Relation between curriculum content and methodology in Starting Points in Reading. A list of literal, critical, creative, study, and literary appreciation skills was presented in Starting Points in Reading. Those which seem to pertain most to reading comprehension are outlined below:

Organizing

- Outlining
- Charts
- Sequence
- Notetaking

Critical Reading

- Classifying
- Comparing
- Discriminating fact/fiction
- Possible/impossible
- Fantasy/reality
- True/false
- Evaluating author's style, viewpoint, and language

Comprehension

- Details
- Figurative language
- Main ideas
- Outlining
- Cause-effect relationships
- Sequence
- Summarizing

Creative Reading

- Composing figurative language
- Inferences--re character traits, feelings
- Opinions
- Implied meanings
- Predicting outcomes
- Sensory perception--emotional response

Given the picture of reading comprehension methodology painted in Table 7.5 there would seem to be a discrepancy between what the authors consider to be important reading comprehension skills developed in Starting Points and those reading comprehension skills which were found by the writer to be developed by the reading comprehension methodology. Of the twenty-five skills presented in the condensed list above only five are demanded by more than 4% of the reading comprehension methodology. As indicated in Table 7.5 these were the reading comprehension skills of details, cause-effect relationships, character traits, reaction to language, and compare/contrast. Very little of the program's reading comprehension methodology had been designed to develop inferential skills such as predicting, main ideas, figurative language, sequence or skills belonging in the evaluation level which had been emphasized as an important aspect of reading comprehension. Those skills which did receive attention had been listed it is true but it seems fair to conclude that there was a fair degree of inconsistency between the stated curriculum content and the reading comprehension methodology.

It is evident that the categories of reading comprehension designated by the authors of Starting Points differed from those followed by the writer who was using Barrett's Taxonomy of Reading Comprehension. Thus what the authors of the Ginn reading series may have called a skill of creative reading--for example, predicting outcomes, the writer would have called an inferential skill. Also, in the index of comprehension skills given by the authors evaluating is listed under critical reading whereas in the introduction to the manuals to Starting Points it is given as belonging to both the critical and creative dimensions of reading comprehension. Thus those skills classified as creative do not completely correspond to those in the appreciation level of Barrett's Taxonomy.

This situation naturally resulted in a discrepancy at times between the authors' designation of the reading comprehension methodology and what was recorded by the writer. For example, in the second book of Starting Points in Reading A the authors designate the following questions as related to evaluation: "Did you like this story? . . . Which part do you think was the most exciting? Which part was the funniest?" (Hooper and Dalton, 1974, p. 14). These would have been classified by the writer as belonging to the appreciation level of reading comprehension.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Starting Points in Reading. The authors of Starting Points in Reading were more concerned than those of the Nelson Language Development Reading Program with providing a variety of types of material within each of the program's themes. This is illustrated by the following excerpt taken from Starting Points (1974):

> For example, "I'm the King of the Castle, the first theme in Starting Points in Reading A, First Book, is concerned with games and leisure-time activities and includes a traditional skipping chant, a story about a small boy who earns the right to declare "I'm the King of the Castle," a reproduction of the famous painting "Children's Games" by Pieter Brueghel, poems about imaginary games, two informational pieces about games our ancestors played and the kinds of toys they owned, a contemporary story about some city children and their struggle to keep their only play area--a pile of dirt, and recipes for the "game" of cooking.
>
> The same theme in Starting Points in Language A complements the reading selections in Starting Points in Reading A, First Book by encouraging children to explore their own knowledge and ideas about chants, games, and toys. The talking, acting, and writing activities include appreciating rhyme in chants, comparing information about the ways games are played, using the encyclopedia to find answers to questions, interviewing older persons about games played in the past, reporting findings to the class, acting out conflicts in games to learn why rules are important, determining ways of resolving conflicts, describing games clearly enough to be understood by others, writing imaginary stories about games, making up games. (p. ix)

The criteria used in selecting the themes and content for Starting Points were that the material should be of interest to children, incorporate aspects of good language and literature, include stories about sports, art, or some other leisure-time activity and contain appropriate values. In Table 7.7 the type of reader content coded in Starting Points in Reading is presented.

Table 7.7 shows that the categories of content most often recorded were poetry, realistic/interpersonal stories, historical, functional, and moralistically oriented selections. This indicates both differences and similarities between the content of the Nelson and Ginn reading series.

Neither stories of adventure, animals/nature, or Canadian life are included in the top six categories of Starting Points as they are in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. Ginn has included more historical, fantasy,and functional selections than has Nelson. Both series have poetry, realistic-interpersonal, and moralistic stories in their most frequently occurring types of content but Nelson has more poetry and adventure stories while Ginn has more moralistic, realistic, historical, scientific stories, and fables.

The fact that the category of Canadian life was not often recorded in Starting Points is less surprising considering the overall amount of Canadian prose content found in the series. The frequency and percentage of Canadian prose content recorded in Starting Points is shown below:

Table 7.7

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in
Starting Points in Reading

	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
Content	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.	Freq.	% total sel.
Poetry	36	37.1	44	37.9	39	39.8	119	38.3
Prose:								
Real./interper.	12	12.4	4	3.4	15	15.3	31	10.0
Historical	10	10.3	7	6.0	10	10.2	27	8.7
Fantasy	6	6.2	17	14.7	4	4.1	27	8.7
Functional	8	8.2	6	5.2	8	8.2	22	7.1
Morals/values	8	8.2	6	5.2	7	7.1	21	6.8
Science	7	7.2	8	6.9	2	2.0	17	5.5
Myths/legends	2	2.1	12	10.3	1	1.0	15	4.8
Animals/nature	3	3.1	5	4.3	6	6.1	14	4.5
Canadian life	5	5.2	7	6.0	2	2.0	14	4.5
Adventure	4	4.1	4	3.4	4	4.1	12	3.6
Biography	5	5.2	2	1.7	3	3.1	10	3.2
Humor/nonsense	2	2.1	3	2.6	4	4.1	9	2.9
Fables/tales	1	1.0	6	5.2	2	2.0	9	2.9
Geography	1	1.0	2	1.7	1	1.0	4	1.3
Mystery	1	1.0	2	1.7	1	1.0	4	1.3
Sports	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	4.1	4	1.3
Current	2	2.1	0	0.0	1	1.0	3	1.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.8	2	0.6
Art	1	1.0	1	1.0	0	0.0	2	0.6
Drama	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	0.3
Religious	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Mod. Tech.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

	No. Prose Selections	Canadian Content Frequency	Canadian Content Percentage
Reader 4	66	4	6.1
Reader 5	66	11	16.7
Reader 6	51	9	17.6
Total	183	24	13.1

Compared with the amount of Canadian prose recorded in Nelson's program (43.6%) the amount of Canadian prose content in Ginn's program (13.1%) provides quite a contrast. In fact this amount of Canadian prose content in the Starting Points series represents the least amount of Canadian prose content found in a reading series so far.

Those stories in Starting Points which have a strong Canadian orientation often convey information about aspects of Canadian history, about life of different groups of people in different parts of Canada including Eskimos and Indians, and about present-day activities such as clips about the National Ballet, The National Museum in Toronto, Canadian sports, and science research. Other stories provide a glimpse of Canada simply through their Canadian setting such as the excerpt from the Incredible Journey which is a tale of the adventures experienced by animals as they travel through Northern Ontario.

Because of selections like these in Starting Points it is fair to say that the Canadian feeling and orientation of the series comes through much more strongly than is suggested by the 13.1 percentage of Canadian prose content recorded. However, in comparison with the Nelson series the amount of Canadian prose content is much less and the number of Canadian authors much fewer in Starting Points in Reading.

Like the Nelson Language Development Reading series Starting Points in Reading includes several selections which are concerned with realistic/interpersonal events that may characterize the life of the modern elementary school aged child. For example, one story shows the problems of living in the inner-city where there is little space, another deals with the issue of nick-names, another where children help the elderly, and one where sisters have to learn to accept each others' character traits.

Certain values, of course, come through in these stories: sharing, tolerance, kindness, and thrust are only a few which emerge. In other selections different moralistic threads run. The value of listening to the advice and directions, of adults is evident in certain pieces; the problems that can arise from vanity and envy are illustrated in the "Baker's Daughter;" and the value of hard work is amplified in "Ramon."

A goodly number of selections convey historical, geographical, and scientific information. Volcanic eruptions, archeological findings, biographical notes, history of the automobile, stories that take place in Mexico, Australia, England are all examples of this. Functional type selections also contribute scientific, historical, and geographical information as well as insights into such real-to-life experiences as cooking, tie-dying, drawing, and constructing.

Within Starting Points myths/legends and tales of fantasy are also found. These selections range from famous Greek myths, to tales of superstition, to simple imaginary tales like that where a boy was borrowed by the people of another planet to assist in their invasion of earth.

An analysis of the content type and form of a series like Starting Points may be somewhat misleading given the thematically organized format of the program. The emphasis of the authors was to present within a thematic framework a range of types of selections so that, for example, there might only be one scientific oriented story within a theme but it was an integral point for that theme. Therefore, using this criteria the selection of the content might have of necessity omitted certain types of selections. However, the type of analysis carried out of the reader content allows trends to be seen and comparisons to be made. Therefore, the present system of content analysis is valid for this study but it should be pointed out that by analyzing the thematic units of a series like Starting Points a different picture might have emerged--one which would have shown how the different types of stories selected for a unit made a good fit with the theme for that unit.

The outstanding feature of the Starting Points in Reading series is its wide range of content. This is further highlighted by the information given in Table 7.8 which depicts the frequency and percentage of the content form in Starting Points in Reading.

Table 7.8 shows that the content form is more evenly distributed in Starting Points in Reading than in any other series.

The least amount of narrative and the most functional amount of expository material to date has been included.

Table 7.8

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Starting Points in Reading

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.	Freq.	%/tot. sel.
Narrative	25	25.8	30	25.9	33	33.7	88	28.3
Descriptive/ Informational	18	18.6	13	11.2	6	6.1	37	11.9
Expository	10	10.3	23	19.8	12	12.2	45	14.5
Literary - Poetry	36	37.1	44	37.9	39	39.8	119	38.3
- Drama	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.0	1	0.3
Functional	8	8.2	6	5.2	7	7.1	21	6.8

Generally the reading comprehension skills developed by the reading comprehension methodology for each reader selection were appropriate in relation to the content of the selection. Reading skills pertaining to the reorganizational, evaluative, and appreciative levels, however, could have been further developed in several selections. This is supported by the fact that although the literary form of the content was the most frequently found in the series the appreciation level of comprehension was demanded by only 13.6% of the reading comprehension methodology. Similarly, there was a fair percentage of content that was descriptive/informative and expository in nature yet the reorganizational level was developed by only 2.2% of the reading comprehension methodology. Again fantasy stories and stories with a moralistic orientation were among the six most frequently found content types which would suggest that the evaluation level of reading comprehension might have been highlighted more by the methodology. Thus there was some discrepancy between the reader content and reading comprehension methodology suggested in conjunction with the content.

Methodology in Strategies for Language Arts. The reading comprehension methodology recorded in Strategies according to reading comprehension skills is produced in Table 7.9.

The information in Table 7.9 indicates that the reading comprehension skills most often developed by the reading comprehension methodology are those of details, cause-effect relationships, identifying with characters/incidents, compare/contrast, reacting to the author's language and predicting outcomes. Those least often developed are sequence, figurative language, classifying, outlining, summarizing, synthesizing, fact/opinion, adequacy/validity, appropriateness and worth. Because two of the most prevalent reading comprehension skills developed by the methodology are identifying with characters/incidents, and reacting to the authors' language which belong to the appreciation level one would expect the appreciation level of reading comprehension to be stressed by the reading comprehension methodology. In Table 7.10 the frequency and percentage of reading comprehension methodology coded in Strategies for Language Arts according to reading comprehension level is given.

As shown in Table 7.10 the reading comprehension methodology that was coded as having developed the appreciation level

Table 7.9

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Strategies in Language Arts
Coded According to Skill of Reading Comprehension

Percentage of methodology related to skills

	Gr	Freq. no. Coded	Details	Main idea	Sequence	Comp/contrast	Cause/effect	Char. traits	Predicting out.	Fig. lang.	Classific.	Outlining	Summarizing	Synthesizing	Real./fant.	Fact/opinion	Adeq./valid.	Appropriate.	Worth/Des./Acc.	Emot. response	Ident.chars.	React. lang.	Imagery	Other	Total
Purposes	4	28	39.3	3.6	7.1	3.6	10.7		7.1						3.6				3.6			3.6	3.6	14.3	100.1
	5	18	38.9	16.7			16.7	5.6	5.6						5.6						5.6			5.6	100.3
	6	9	55.6		11.1	11.1	11.1																	11.1	100.0
	Sum	55	41.8	7.3	5.5	3.6	12.7	1.8	5.5						3.6				1.8		1.8	1.8	1.8	10.9	99.9
Directives	4	126	19.0	2.4	3.2	11.9	7.9	6.3	1.6	1.6	0.8		1.6		1.6	0.8		1.6	2.4	3.2	5.6	11.1	5.6	11.9	100.1
	5	110	25.5	11.8	2.7	9.1	2.7	4.5	0.9	1.8	0.9				1.8	1.8			0.9	7.3	1.8	10.0	12.7	3.6	99.8
	6	54	29.6	11.1		9.3	3.7	5.6	1.9		3.7				3.7		5.6	1.9	7.4	5.6		3.7	7.4		100.2
	Sum	290	23.4	7.6	2.4	10.3	5.2	5.5	1.4	1.4	1.4		0.7		2.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.8	5.2	3.1	9.3	8.6	6.6	100.0
Questions	4	455	39.6	1.5	0.2	2.2	16.3	2.4	4.8	0.7					2.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	2.2	1.1	9.5	3.3	1.3	12.3	100.0
	5	371	32.1	1.6	0.3	4.9	18.3	3.8	4.6	0.5	0.3				1.1	0.8	1.1	0.5	3.8	0.5	8.6	5.1	1.3	10.8	100.0
	6	322	39.4	1.6	0.9	4.0	13.4	2.5	5.6	0.9			0.3		0.9	0.6	0.6	0.3	5.3	1.2	5.3	5.0	0.9	11.2	99.9
	Sum	1148	37.1	1.6	0.4	3.6	16.1	2.9	5.0	0.7	0.1		0.1		1.5	0.4	0.6	0.3	3.6	1.0	8.0	4.4	1.2	11.5	100.1
Skill Exercises (M)	4	19	31.6		21.1	10.5		10.5			5.3	10.5										5.3	5.3		100.1
	5	5	40.0	20.0				20.0				20.0													100.0
	6	7	57.1		14.3	28.6																			100.0
	Sum	31	38.7	3.2	16.1	12.9		9.7			3.2	9.7										3.2	3.2		99.9
Activities	4	30	3.3			30.0	3.3	16.7					3.3		13.3					3.3	3.3	13.3	10.0		99.8
	5	28	10.7		3.6	21.4		7.1			10.7									3.6	3.6	14.3	25.0		100.0
	6	15	6.7			20.0	6.7		13.3										20.0	6.7	6.7		20.0		100.1
	Sum	73	6.8		1.4	24.7	2.7	9.6	2.7		4.1		1.4		5.5				4.1	4.1	4.1	11.0	17.8		100.0
Skill Exercises (W)	4	124	21.8	5.6	0.8	8.9	10.5		3.2	1.6	0.8	1.6			3.2			0.8	3.2	2.4	6.5	3.2	8.1	17.7	99.9
	5	124	18.5	7.3	0.8	7.3	12.9	0.8	0.8	1.6		0.8			4.0	1.6	0.8	1.6	4.0	0.8	6.5	7.3	7.3	15.3	100.0
	6	108	25.0	3.7	1.9	4.6	9.3	4.6	2.8		0.9	0.9	0.9		1.9	3.7	0.9	0.9	8.3		7.4	6.5	6.5	9.3	100.0
	Sum	356	21.6	5.6	1.1	7.0	11.0	1.7	2.2	1.1	0.6	1.1	0.3		3.1	1.7	0.6	1.1	5.1	1.1	6.7	5.6	7.3	14.3	99.9
	Total	1953	31.3	3.3	1.3	6.1	12.7	3.4	3.8	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.3		2.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	3.6	1.7	6.6	5.5	4.1	10.7	100.1

Table 7.10

Reading Comprehension Methodology in *Strategies in Language Arts*
Coded According to Level of Reading Comprehension

			Percentage of methodology related to levels						
	Gr	Frequency no. coded	Literal	Inferential	Reorganization	Evaluation	Appreciation	Other	Total
Purposes	4	28	57.1	14.3		7.1	7.1	14.3	99.9
	5	18	44.4	38.9		5.6	5.6	5.6	100.1
	6	9	88.9					11.1	100.0
	Sum	55	58.2	20.0		5.5	5.5	10.9	100.1
Directives	4	126	23.0	31.0	2.4	6.3	25.4	11.9	100.0
	5	110	28.2	30.9	0.9	4.5	31.8	3.6	99.9
	6	54	33.3	27.8	3.7	18.5	16.7		100.0
	Sum	290	26.9	30.3	2.1	7.9	26.2	6.6	100.0
Questions	4	455	26.4	41.3		4.8	15.2	12.3	100.0
	5	371	33.4	32.6	0.3	7.3	15.6	10.8	100.0
	6	322	33.2	35.1	0.3	7.8	12.4	11.2	100.0
	Sum	1148	30.6	36.8	0.2	6.4	14.5	11.5	100.0
Skill Exercises (M)	4	19	68.4	5.3	15.8		10.5		100.0
	5	5	80.0		20.0				100.0
	6	7	85.7	14.3					100.0
	Sum	31	74.2	6.5	12.9		6.5		100.1
Activities	4	30	3.3	50.0	3.3	13.3	30.0		99.9
	5	28	17.9	25.0	10.7		46.4		100.0
	6	15	6.7	40.0		20.0	33.3		100.0
	Sum	73	9.6	38.4	5.5	9.6	37.0		100.1
Skill Exercises (W)	4	124	31.5	21.0	2.4	7.3	20.2	17.7	100.1
	5	124	25.8	24.2	0.8	12.1	21.8	15.3	100.0
	6	108	27.8	24.1	2.8	15.7	20.4	9.3	100.1
	Sum	356	28.4	23.0	2.0	11.5	20.8	14.3	100.0
	Total	1953	30.3	32.4	1.2	7.6	17.9	10.7	100.1

of reading comprehension equalled approximately 17.9% of the total reading comprehension methodology recorded. This represents the largest percentage of reading comprehension methodology devoted to the appreciation level in all the reading series analyzed since Highroads to Reading (1935). The literal and inferential levels of reading comprehension were developed to almost the same degree by the reading comprehension methodology with the evaluative and reorganizational levels having been demanded the least.

From observing the frequency of the purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities in Strategies the characteristic which stands out is the few purposes recorded in Strategies as compared to those recorded in Starting Points in Reading and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program. The number of purposes, directives, questions, skill exercises, and activities in Strategies can be compared more readily to those in the other series by referring to the outline below:

Methodology	Frequency of Methodology		
	NLDRP	SPIR	Gage
Purposes	261	402	55
Directives	180	293	290
Questions	324	2876	1148
Skill exercises (M)	104	236	31
Skill exercises (W)	495	256	356
Activities	59	165	73

The above outline shows the Nelson reading series to have the least number of directives which is supported as well by a subjective analysis of the series. The number of activities in each series from this period is about the same as had been in the series selected for study from the preceding period.

Relation between theory and methodology in Strategies for Language Arts. As noted earlier in the description of reading theory there was an emphasis in *Strategies* upon reading as a critical thinking activity. This would suggest that the evaluative level of reading comprehension methodology was to be stressed in the program. Instead the evaluative level was required by only 7.6% of the reading comprehension methodology thus indicating some disparity between the authors' theoretical position and the reading comprehension methodology. However, the inferential level of reading comprehension was emphasized slightly more than the literal by the reading comprehension methodology which would suggest some consistency between the authors' view of reading and reading comprehension methodology.

Relation between the curriculum content and methodology in Strategies for Language Arts. The writer concluded that generally there was a consistency between the skills listed in the series and those found in the reading comprehension methodology. Also, there was consistency between the authors' designation of reading comprehension skills being developed by the methodology and that coded by the writer.

Relation between reader content and methodology in Strategies for Language Arts. The frequency and percentage of the type of reader content found in *Strategies for Language Arts* is presented in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11 reveals that the most commonly found types of content in Strategies were poetry, realistic-interpersonal, historical, animals-nature, adventure, and moralistic-values selections. In some ways the content in Strategies is like that in the other two current series which can be more readily seen in the list below of the most commonly occurring types of content in the three series:

NLDRP	SPIR	Strategies
Poetry	Poetry	Poetry
Real./interper.	Real./interper.	Real./interper.
Adventure	Historical	Historical
Canadian life	Fantasy	Animals/nature
Morals/values	Functional	Adventure
Animals/nature	Morals/values	Morals/values

Poetry was the most frequently occurring type of content in all three series. Like Starting Points in Reading (SPIR) the category of Canadian life was not one of the most frequently occurring content types in Strategies and like the Nelson Language Development Reading Program (NLDRP), stories of adventure and animals/nature were often found.

Although stories of Canadian life only represented 3.4% of the content a much different picture results from an analysis of the actual Canadian prose content present in the series. The amount of Canadian prose content found is given below:

Table 7.11

Frequency and Percentage of Content Type in
Strategies for Language Arts

Content	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Poetry	31	44.9	33	46.5	29	45.3	93	45.6
Real./interper.	3	4.3	9	12.7	3	4.7	15	7.4
Historical	6	6.7	5	7.0	4	6.3	15	7.4
Animals/nature	3	4.3	6	8.5	6	9.4	15	7.4
Adventure	5	7.2	5	7.0	2	3.1	12	5.9
Morals/values	7	10.1	1	1.4	3	4.7	11	5.4
Science	4	5.8	3	4.2	2	3.1	9	4.4
Humor/nonsense	4	5.8	2	2.8	2	3.1	8	3.9
Fantasy	0	0.0	4	5.6	3	4.7	7	3.4
Myths/lengends	3	4.3	3	4.2	1	1.6	7	3.4
Biography	2	2.9	3	4.2	2	3.1	7	3.4
Canadian life	3	4.3	2	2.8	2	3.1	7	3.4
Drama	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	3.1	4	2.0
Geography	1	1.4	3	4.2	0	0.0	4	2.0
Current	1	1.4	0	0.0	2	3.1	3	1.5
Sports	1	1.4	1	1.4	0	0.0	2	1.0
Fables/tales	2	2.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.0
Art	0	0.0	1	1.4	1	1.6	2	1.0
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.1	2	1.0
Mystery	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.6	1	0.5
Religious	0	0.0	1	1.4	0	0.0	1	0.5
Mod. Tech.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Health	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

	No. Prose Selections	Canadian Content Frequency	Percentage
Reader 4	34	8	23.5
Reader 5	36	13	36.1
Reader 6	26	8	30.8
Total	96	29	30.2

Approximately 30% of the prose selections in Strategies for Language Arts were Canadian oriented--more than in Starting Points but less than in the Nelson series. In this Canadian prose content information about Canadian Indians and Eskimos, different regions, and different professional groups is conveyed.

Realistic stories deal with pranks played by children, the concerns of children for their appearance, and typical family events. Values which permeate certain selections are the importance of obedience, courage, accepting others for what they are, respecting the cultural heritage of others, the danger of misjudging appearances, the dangers of pollution, and love of animals and nature.

Animals/nature selections were among the most common types of content as indicated in Table 7.11. These included a wide variety of stories such as a horse-racing adventure, a tale of the need to protect endangered species, and an account of the Sasquatch. Adventure and historical selections also occurred more frequently than others. Adventures encountered by the main characters involved getting lost, facing a dangerous animal, and discovering treasure. Historical selections often dealt with important archeological findings and people. These were usually written in the narrative form which was a dominant written form. The different content forms in Strategies for Language Arts are illustrated in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12

Frequency and Percentage of Content Form in Strategies for Language Arts

Form	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Narrative	30	43.5	29	40.8	19	29.7	78	38.2
Descriptive/ Informational	3	4.3	0	0.0	2	3.1	5	2.5
Expository	4	5.8	8	11.3	10	15.6	23	11.3
Literary - Poetry	31	44.9	33	46.5	29	45.3	93	45.6
- Drama	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	3.1	4	2.0
Functional	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	3.1	2	1.0

As indicated in Table 7.12 the two most dominant written forms in Strategies for Language Arts are poetry and narrative. As in Starting Points in Reading there is more expository material in Strategies than in the Nelson Language Development Reading Program.

In the writer's opinion the reading comprehension skills listed to be taught in relation to reader selections were generally appropriate for the content of the selections. There were a number of stories, however, which could have been used for the development of skills in the reorganization, evaluation, and appreciation levels of reading comprehension, skills which had been neglected in Strategies for Language Arts. The high percentage of literary content in the series suggests, too, that more emphasis could have been given the appreciation level. Thus there was both consistency and inconsistency between the reader content and reading comprehension methodology designed in relation to that content.

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in the Field of Reading

The predominant use of questions, discussion, and skill exercises in Strategies for Language Arts, Starting Points in Reading, and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program are suggestions frequently found in the current professional literature for improving reading comprehension. As discussed previously, questioning especially is considered to be a valuable tool in reading comprehension instruction.

However, there is no systematic teaching of reading comprehension in the series which is presently advocated by prominent reading authorities (Otto and Pearson, 1979). Neither is there any evidence in the series of suggestions for teaching reading comprehension based on the implications for instruction arising from the linguistic research, research on text processing, and research on learning from text. Specific instructional strategies arising from this research include the use of directed-reading-thinking activities, advance organizers, study guides, adjunct questions, summarizing, underlining, mapping, paraphrasing, sentence-combining and imagining. None of these were suggested in the three current series. Will they appear in the next series published?

Relation between Reading Comprehension Methodology and Developments in Other Fields

The emphasis on developing children's language and cognitive abilities in the series may have been influenced by developments in linguistics, psychology, and psycholinguistics which have taken place between 1960 and the present time. Perhaps this emphasis is evidence of the influence of psychologists such as Piaget who was concerned with the relation between language and thought or of those belonging to the British school of language thought such as Britton, Tough, and Halliday. Certainly Thorn, Braun, and McInnes , Canadian authors of the series, were aware of and in agreement with many of their ideas.

Summary

While certain current characteristics of theory and concepts in the reading field carried over into Strategies for Language Arts, Starting Points in Reading, and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program several did not and there was less impact on these series of developments which had characterized the reading field for ten years previously than on any preceding reading series analyzed in this study.

There is little evidence of the impact of psycholinguistic, information-processing theories of reading, linguistic research, theory and research pertaining to discourse analysis, or research on learning from text which began to accumulate after the early-to-middle 1960's. Between 1974 and 1979 these developments continued to dominate the reading field. Perhaps traces of their influence will be seen in the next publication of Canadian elementary reading series.

Chapter 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter findings from the analysis of the Canadian reading series selected for study are highlighted with respect to the evolution of reading theory, reading comprehension methodology, and the content of the readers. As a result of the analysis conclusions were reached in relation to the specific research questions of the study and certain implications were drawn for the publication of reading series. These conclusions and implications along with recommendations for further research are discussed within this chapter.

Research Question 1: How has the Reading Theory in the Basal Reading Series Changed?

The views about reading contained in Canadian elementary basal reading series have certainly changed since Lindley Murray's day when reading was equated with elocution and served a strongly moralistic purpose. Little discussion of the reading process took place in either the English Reader (1840), the Irish National Series (1846-1866), the Canadian Readers (1868), the Royal Readers (1880), the Ontario Readers (1880), Victorian Readers (1890), or Canadian Readers (1922). Through all of these years reading was primarily seen as an oral reading activity.

With the publication of the *Canadian Treasury* and *Highroads to Reading series* around 1934 this concept of reading changed. Reading was now considered a silent reading process which involved speed, comprehension, and organization. Specific aspects of reading came to be delineated such as selecting central ideas, outlining, and skimming. In these series the reading aims or objectives of the series included the development of reading interests and the cultivation of literary taste, and the relation of reading to other subject areas began to receive attention.

The idea that reading was a silent, thought-getting process gathered strength in the *Canadian Reading Development* and *Highroads to Reading* series published between 1949 and 1950. Now skills of reading were becoming more delineated. Reading was also viewed as a literary activity by the authors of the *Highroads* series published by Nelson.

More than ever before the philosophy of reading as both a cognitive and skills activity was apparent in the two reading series published between 1961 and 1966, *Canadian Ginn Basic* and the *Young Canada Readers*. Reading comprehension was considered of utmost importance in these series and comprehension skills were even further delineated although it must be noted that the authors of Nelson's *Young Canada Readers* strongly stressed that reading was a literary experience.

In the most recent Canadian elementary reading series selected for study, *Starting Points*, *Strategies*, and the *Nelson Language Devel-*

opment Reading Program, there is very little discussion of the reading process. From analyzing the content of these programs, however, it is apparent that reading is viewed as a cognitive, skills oriented process and as one of the language arts. The integration of reading with the language arts had been discussed in the previously published series, especially in Canadian Ginn Basic, but these concepts were much more strongly reinforced in the current series. At the time of this writing the Nelson Language Development Reading Program has been revised and in the new teachers' guidebooks reading is now described as a psycholinguistic activity.

One can conclude, therefore, that the reading theory described in the teachers' guidebooks of Canadian elementary reading series has changed and continues to evolve.

Research Question 2: How has the Reading Comprehension Methodology in Basal Reading Series Changed?

Neither Lindley Murray's English Reader (1840) nor any of the other reading series published up to and including the Canadian Readers (1923) had included any suggestions for reading comprehension instruction. With the publication of the Treasury reading series and Highroads to Reading series around 1934 the teachers' guide - one for all three grades - contained methodological suggestions for teaching reading. The next two reading series, Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading (1946-1950), stressed methodology in general much more than had any other series previously. Now a teacher's guide and workbook accompanied each reader for each grade. Several aspects of the methodology were designed to develop the reader's comprehension. After these reading series came Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers published between 1961 and 1966. Suggestions for teaching reading comprehension were made in the guidebooks and workbooks accompanying the readers of these series. The number of questions included in these series had certainly increased and the organizational framework had become much more comprehensive and structured. In Starting Points in Reading, the Nelson Language Development Reading Program, and Strategies for Language Arts published between 1971 and 1976 methodology seemed to gain even greater prominence as two workbooks now accompanied the readers.

The increase in materials accompanying the reading series suggests that reading comprehension methodology has increased in Canadian reading series between 1934 and 1976. Table 8.1 presents an overview of the number of purposes, directives, activities, questions, and skill exercises in each of the Canadian reading studied.

An examination of the total average methodology for each set of reading series published in 1934, 1946-1950, 1961-1966, and 1971-1976 reveals that generally reading comprehension methodology did increase between 1961 and 1976. What is also revealed is that the overall proportion of purposes, directives, activities, questions, and skill exercises is less in the most recently published reading series while both the number of directives and workbook exercises related to reading comprehension has increased.

Table 8.1

Reading Comprehension Methodology in Canadian Reading Series Published Between 1934 and 1976

Methodology	1934			1946–1950			1961–1966			1971–1976			
	Treas.	High.	Aver.	C.R.D.	High.	Aver.	C.G.B.	Y.C.R.	Aver.	NLDRP.	SPIR.	STRAT.	Aver.
Purposes	13	3	8	441	148	299	473	350	411	261	402	55	239
Directives	11	0	6	171	276	223	243	108	175	180	293	290	254
Questions	1253	853	1053	1404	895	1150	1530	4428	2979	324	2876	1148	1449
Skill Exercises (M)	3	29	16	240	36	138	212	21	117	104	236	31	124
Skill Exercises (Wkbk)	0	0	0	213	192	203	218	268	243	495	256	356	369
Activities	17	22	20	72	52	62	181	67	124	59	165	73	99
Total	1297	906	1103	3147	1599	2075	2856	5242	4049	1423	4228	1953	2534

Legend:

Treas. - Treasury Readers
High. - Highroads to Reading
C.R.D. - Canadian Reading Development
C.G.B. - Canadian Ginn Basic
Y.C.R. - Young Canada Readers
NLDRP. - Nelson Language Development Reading Program
SPIR. - Starting Points in Reading
STRAT. - Strategies for Language Arts
Aver. - Average

The information in Table 8.1 also illustrates the differences between reading series with respect to the reading comprehension methodology. In those series published between 1971 and 1976, for example, questions are far more evident in Starting Points(SPIR.) than in either of the other two series, especially the Nelson, yet in the series published immediately before far more questions could be found.

A picture of the percentage of the reading comprehension methodology designed to develop particular reading comprehension skills in the series studied is portrayed in Table 8.2. Based on the information presented here it is difficult to ascertain any increase or decrease in the methodology related to any particular reading comprehension skill. What is interesting is the fact that almost always, regardless of the publication date of any series, the reading comprehension skills of details, cause-effect relations, character traits, reacting to the author's use of language, compare/contrast, and main ideas were emphasized by the reading comprehension methodology while the skills of classifying, outlining, summarizing, synthesizing, reality/fantasy, fact/opinion, adequacy/validity, appropriateness, worth, identification with characters, figurative language, sequence, and predicting outcomes were not.

Much the same picture is presented regarding the levels of reading comprehension demanded by the methodology through the different publications of elementary reading series. Support for

Table 8.2

Percentage of the Reading Comprehension Methodology Related to Reading Comprehension Skills in Canadian Reading Series Published Between 1934 and 1976

Skills	Percentage methodology related to skills								
	1934		1946-1950		1961-1966		1971-1976		
	Treas.	High.	C.R.D.	High.	C.G.B.	Y.C.R.	NLDRP.	SPIR.	STRAT.
Details	23.5	23.5	42.4	29.4	30.3	29.9	39.8	33.9	31.3
Main Ideas	3.9	3.8	3.4	4.0	4.0	2.5	3.4	3.5	3.3
Sequence	0.3	0.2	1.9	2.1	2.[illegible]	1.1	3.3	1.1	1.3
Comp/cont	6.6	7.5	4.9	4.6	3.4	7.1	4.6	4.0	6.1
Cause/effect	14.0	24.2	20.9	27.0	17.2	23.6	14.4	12.3	12.7
Char. traits	12.3	5.4	4.1	4.0	4.4	5.2	3.4	7.0	3.4
Predicting	1.1	1.5	2.4	1.8	3.0	2.0	4.1	2.5	3.8
Figur. lang.	2.9	2.9	1.3	2.2	0.9	0.6	1.1	3.1	0.8
Classifying	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.8	1.0	0.6
Outlining	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.4	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.4
Summarizing	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.3	0.7	0.3
Synthesizing	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Real./ fant.	1.4	0.8	0.7	1.3	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.5	2.0
Fact/opinion	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.1	0.1	1.3	0.7
Adeq./validity	1.4	1.5	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.5	1.5	0.8	0.6
Appropriate.	1.3	1.5	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.4	0.6	0.3	0.6
Worth	4.4	1.7	1.7	2.1	3.0	2.2	1.0	2.0	3.6
Emotional res.	8.2	6.6	1.1	1.9	3.4	4.8	2.6	3.1	1.7
Ident. chars.	1.0	1.3	2.0	1.8	2.7	2.2	2.9	3.3	6.6
React. lang.	9.3	5.6	2.1	4.8	3.7	4.5	2.2	4.9	5.5
Imagery	6.6	5.0	3.0	3.4	7.6	3.8	4.1	2.2	4.1
	Six Most Frequent Skills Coded								
	Details	Details	Details	Details	Details	Details	Details	Details	Details
	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.	Cause/E.
	Char. t.	Com/con	Com/con	React.l.	Imagery	Com/con	Com/con	Char. t.	Ident.c.
	React. l.	Emot.re.	Char. t.	Com/con	Char. t.	Char. t.	Imagery	React.l.	Com/con
	Emot. re.	React.l.	Main id.	Char. t.	Main id.	Emot. re.	Predict.	Com/con	React.l.
	Comp/con Imagery	Char. t.	Imagery	Main id.	React.l.	React. l.	Main Id Sequenc	Main id.	Predict.

this can be found in Table 8.3 which gives an overview of the percentage of reading comprehension methodology related to levels of reading comprehension in the reading series analyzed.

Table 8.3

Percentage of Reading Comprehension Methodology Related to Reading Comprehension Levels in Canadian Reading Series: 1934 - 1976

	1934		1946-1950		1961-1966		1971-1976		
Level	Treas.	High.	C.R.D.	High.	C.G.B.	Y.C.R.	NLDRP.	SPIR.	STRAT.
Literal	29.9	31.1	53.5	43.8	39.1	35.6	48.0	33.4	30.3
Inferent.	34.7	37.8	27.7	31.5	26.6	36.3	26.0	34.0	32.4
Reorganiz.	0.3	0.3	1.5	0.4	1.0	0.5	3.1	2.2	1.2
Evaluation	8.9	5.8	4.3	5.5	6.2	4.8	4.3	5.9	7.6
Appreciat.	25.1	18.6	8.2	11.9	17.4	15.4	11.9	13.6	17.9

Again , it is difficult to ascertain any trend in the reading series with respect to the level of reading comprehension demanded by the methodology. This means, of course, that the very first reading series did not greatly differ from the currently published reading series. Throughout the period of the study the literal and inferential levels of reading comprehension were the two most frequently required by the reading comprehension methodology followed by, in order of frequency, appreciation, evaluation and reorganization. It should be pointed out that the results of coding the reading comprehension methodology as shown in Tables 8.2 and 8.3 are similar to the results obtained in other content analyses of basal reading series (Bartholome, 1968; Cooke, 1970; Hatcher, 1971; Nicholson, 1977; Rosecky, 1971; Vaughn, 1976).

Research Question 3: Relation between Theory and Methodology

In all of the series studied there was both a consistency and inconsistency between the views and goals of reading stated by the authors and the actual reading comprehension methodology included in the programs. Certain skills described as being important were developed by the methodology particularly those of details, cause-effect relations, character traits, reacting to language, emotional response, compare/contrast, and imagery. Many other skills, however, were neglected by the methodology although they had been described as important to reading comprehension. Examples of these are main ideas, summarizing, outlining, adequacy/validity, and worth. Mostly the skills in the reorganization, evaluation, and appreciation levels were neglected although reading had been described as a cognitive and literary activity in many of the series.

Research Question 4: Relation between Curriculum Content and Methodology

As in the previous question there was both inconsistency and inconsistency between the content of skills charts in the series which included an overview of curriculum content and the reading skills found by the writer. Certain skills listed in the charts such as details and character traits were developed by the reading comprehension methodology while others, especially those in the reorganization, evaluation, and appreciation levels, were not.

Research Question 5: Relation between Reader Content and Methodology

For the most part there was a consistency between the type and form of reader content in a selection and the reading comprehension methodology suggested for use with the selections. However, in all series the skills pertaining to the reorganization, evaluation, and appreciation levels of comprehension could have been further developed given the nature of the selections.

Although not a specific research question of the study a picture of the changing content in Canadian elementary readers did emerge as a result of coding the content demanded by research question number 5.

The changing content in Canadian elementary readers.

In the 1830's the reader used in most Canadian schools, Murray's English Reader, was moralistic in tone although some historical exerpts were contained within it. The majority of its writers and selections were of British origin. With the introduction of the Irish National Readers (1846) the content varied a little more consisting of material which comprised "useful knowledge"; material about natural history, religion, morals, geography, gammar, manufacturing, and poetry,. Most of the content in these readers, too, was British.

The Canadian Readers (1868) as implied by the title, did contain more Canadian content but the majority of its writers were still of a British nationality. A large percentage of the material in these readers was informational. The Royal Readers (1880) and Ontario Readers (1880) included some informative content as well as historical, moralistic, and literary selections. The Victorian Readers (1890) contained more patriotic and literary selections while retaining a strong moralistic orientation. With the succeeding reprints of the Ontario Readers (1890-1922) the Canadian patriotic content did increase but not to a great extent. These readers had a greater variety of stories including adventure stories, biographies, moralistic and informational passages, historical selections, and literary pieces.

Thus to 1922 the trend was toward a greater variety of content and more Canadian content although the British influence was still dominant and a strong moralistic flavour persisted. Table 8.4 provides a summary of the content in each of the ten Canadian reading series published between 1932/1823 to 1976 analyzed in this study.

Very few trends can really be said to have been established within the reading series although there does appear to have been a general increase of realistic fiction, stories of Canadian life (with the exception of Canadian Reading Development), and scientific content and a decrease in the percentage of religious content, biographical selections, folktales, fables and tales.

From examining Table 8.4 differences and similarities between the reading series become evident. For example, both Starting Points

Table 8.4

Percentage of Content Type in Canadian Reading
Series Published: 1922-1976

	1922	1934		1946-1950		1961-1966		1971-1976		
Type	Can.	Treas.	High.	CRD.	High.	CGB.	YCR.	NLDRP.	SPIR.	STRAT.
Poetry	51.1	46.6	50.7	36.4	42.0	62.6	69.4	59.8	38.3	45.6
Prose:										
Morals/va.	6.7	13.1	6.3	8.7	13.5	7.2	4.3	5.6	6.8	5.4
Real/Int.	4.0	5.4	3.0	13.3	4.7	7.5	3.4	9.4	10.0	7.4
Animals/n.	5.4	10.0	4.5	14.5	9.8	7.5	4.9	5.1	4.5	7.4
Fantasy	4.0	5.4	3.4	2.9	8.3	0.9	3.2	2.6	8.7	3.4
Fables/t.	2.7	0.0	8.2	4.6	9.3	2.4	4.3	0.9	2.9	1.0
Myths/leg.	4.5	11.3	9.0	2.9	3.6	2.1	1.9	4.3	4.8	3.4
Religious	5.4	1.4	1.9	0.6	1.6	1.2	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Adventure	3.1	3.6	2.6	5.8	6.2	5.4	1.7	6.8	3.6	18.8
Humour/non	1.3	3.6	3.0	1.7	1.6	3.0	2.6	2.1	2.9	3.9
Canad.life	1.3	0.9	4.1	11.6	7.3	0.9	2.8	6.0	4.5	3.4
Geography	0.4	1.4	1.1	8.7	4.7	4.5	1.1	2.1	1.3	2.0
Biography	10.3	6.8	6.0	4.0	0.0	2.7	1.5	1.3	3.2	3.4
History	10.3	3.2	7.8	5.2	9.3	6.0	1.5	3.4	8.7	7.4
Mod. tec.	0.0	0.0	1.1	3.5	3.6	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Science	0.0	1.8	0.4	1.2	0.0	1.5	0.4	1.3	5.5	4.4
Drama	0.9	0.9	2.6	2.3	2.6	0.0	1.1	1.3	0.3	2.0
Health	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0
Sports	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	1.0
Function.	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	7.1	1.0
Mystery	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.5
Art	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.0
Current	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.5

in Reading and *Strategies for Language Arts* have more historical content than does the *Nelson Language Development Reading Program*; Starting Points has more tales of fantasy than does *Strategies* or the Nelson series; all of the series contained little drama, humour, or mystery.

The increase in science content suggests that there may have been a trend in the reading series toward an increase in expository material. This is, indeed, verified by the information presented in Table 8.5 which shows the form of the content in the reading series.

Table 8.5

Percentage of Content Form in Canadian Reading Series Published Between 1922-1976

	Percentage content form in reading series									
	1922	1934		1946-1950		1961-1966		1971-1976		
Form	Can.	Treas.	High.	CRD.	High.	CGB.	YCR.	NLDRP.	SPIR.	STRAT.
Narrat.	38.6	50.7	43.3	50.1	70.5	70.5	32.5	31.2	28.3	38.2
Des/Inf.	21.1	17.2	12.7	33.5	8.8	8.8	1.7	5.1	11.9	2.5
Expos.	0.0	0.0	3.4	5.8	4.1	3.9	3.0	0.0	14.5	11.3
Literary										
-poetry	51.1	46.7	50.7	36.4	50.0	42.0	69.4	59.8	38.3	45.6
-drama	0.9	0.9	2.6	2.3	3.8	2.6	1.2	1.3	0.3	2.0
Function.	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	6.8	1.0

As shown in Table 8.5 there has been an increase in both expository and functional forms of content in the reading series over time. With other content types there does not seem to have been a trend in either a positive or negative direction-- the literary and narrative categories have continued to dominate throughout the series.

Again in Table 8.5 differences and similarities between the reading series are highlighted. For example, in Canadian Ginn Basic 13.5% of the content was descriptive/informational compared to 1.7% in Young Canada Readers. In the currently adopted series both Strategies and Starting Points have more expository content than does the Nelson Language Development Reading Series. The percentage of narrative content, however, was very similar in all three of these series.

As noted in Chapter 3, the content of poetry was not analyzed but the prose was analyzed. As a result glimpses into the nature of the content were gained. These were briefly described in Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7. In order to completely describe changes in content, however, it would be necessary to analyze, in depth, aspects of content. This can be illustrated by reference to the content dealing with Canadian life. As shown in Table 8.6, which depicts the amount of Canadian prose content found in all of the series, there has been a general increase in the amount of Canadian prose content. This general increase may represent a trend toward nationalism but the Canadian life which is reflected in the stories of our present readers may, in fact, be very different from that in some of our older readers.

Table 8.6

Percentage of Canadian Prose Content in Canadian Reading Series Published Between 1922 and 1976

Series	Percentage[a] Canadian prose content
Canadian Readers (1922)	10.9
Treasury Readers (1934)	20.8
Highroads to Reading (1934)	18.2
Canadian Reading Development (1946-1950)	42.8
Highroads to Reading (1946-1950)	18.8
Young Canada Readers (1961-1966)	21.0
Canadian Ginn Basic (1961-1966)	20.0
Nelson Language Development (1971-1976)	43.6
Starting Points in Reading (1971-1976)	13.1
Strategies for Language Arts (1971-1976	30.2

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[a] The percentage for each series was obtained by totalling the prose content in each series and dividing by the total number of Canadian oriented prose content in each series.

Only a qualitative analysis of reader content could verify such a trend and gain insights into the Canadian life of the times lived by the readers. One may conclude, however, as a result of the analysis carried out in this study that a changing Canadian society is clearly mirrored within the reader pages.

Research Question 6.1: What Influences from the Field of Curriculum Appear to have Affected the Reading Theory and Methodology in the Reading Series?

The importance accorded developing children's reading interests, thematic units, activities, and relating reading to a knowledge of child growth in those reading series published between 1946 and 1950 illustrates a trace of the progressive philosophy.

The increasing emphasis upon objectives and a structured format evident in the reading from 1934 to 1976 could be perceived as signs of the continuing concern in the curriculum field for more systematic curriculum development and also as traces of the influence of the scientific movement. Furthermore, reading had been described as a cognitive activity in almost every reading series but was most stressed in those series published between 1961 and 1966, a time when curriculum theorists were concerned with cognitive development as a major goal of schooling, and when studies of classroom questioning were burgeoning.

In the early and middle 1960's one of the major approaches to classroom instruction advocated by curriculum specialists was the discovery or problem-solving method. This was not, however, a characteristic of the methodology in the series published between

1961 and 1976. The emphasis on children's language and language arts which also had appeared in the early to middle 1960's affected most the theory and methodology in those series published between 1971 and 1976. And, the current swing in the 1970's towards both a more behavioristic and affective curriculum did not affect the content of the series published in the seventies.

Thus it seems fair to conclude on the basis of this study that certain developments in the field of curriculum affected the content of Canadian reading series while others did not.

Research Question 6.2: What Influences from Related Fields Appear to have Affected the Theory and Methodology in the Reading Series?

The analysis demanded by this study provided insights into how developments in the fields of psychology, linguistics, and psycholinguistics affected the reading theory and reading comprehension methodology in Canadian elementary reading series.

The influence of psychology. Between the early 1900's and 1949 many psychologists had become involved in finding out more about child development. Research, for example, in the area of children's interests was carried out between the 1930's and the late 1940's. Child development was also a concern of American psychologists in the 1950's and 1960's who began to take more seriously the work of European psychologists such as Piaget. The concern for relating reading to child development and children's reading interests which manifested itself in the series published between 1946 and 1950 and much more in the later series published between 1961 and 1966 may be considered examples of the influence of developments in psychology upon these series. Similarly, the concept of reading as a cognitive activity which appeared in the series published between 1946 and 1950 may have been experienced by the research of Thorndike (1917), an educational psychologist who, on the basis of his research, believed reading to be a reasoning-thinking kind of process and his view of reading as a cognitive activity was more pronounced in the series published between 1961 and 1966. This may also have been influenced by the increased emphasis and delineation of reading skills according to cognitive levels of reading comprehension then evident in the reading literature which, in turn, may have been influenced, as noted by the work of Bloom (1956) who had put forth a hierarchical model of cognition and Guilford (1959) who had proposed a theory of the intellect.

Other developments in psychology such as the theories and research dealing with discourse analysis which emerged in the early 1970's, however, did not influence the reading theory and methodology contained in those series published between 1971 and 1976. The developments in human information-processing, communications systems and artificial intelligence which were evident in literature from the late fifties through to the seventies did not affect the reading theory in any of the series published between 1961 and 1976. Neither did the results of the research conducted on learning from text which has accumulated from the early 1960's to the present day have any impact on these series. Instructional strategies such as paraphrasing, advance organizers, underlining, study guides, mapping or imaging were not suggested in these series.

The influence of linguistics. In the fifties and sixties, as described in Chapter 6, developments in linguistics affected the fields of curriculum, psychology, and reading. Language acquisition, dialect, language syntax, and transformational grammar were concepts which dominated the linguistic literature of these years. In the sixties and on into the seventies linguistic research investigated the effect of many linguistic variables on reading. None of these developments had an impact on either the reading theory or reading comprehension methodology in the reading series published between 1961 and 1976.

The influence of psycholinguistics. Chiefly as a result of Chonisky's linguistic work in the late fifties and sixties and the work of psychologists in memory and information-processing there occurred a different orientation toward the study of the relation between language and thought known as psycholinguistic orientation. Through the further efforts of linguists and psychologists the field known as psycholinguistics strengthened in the late 1960's and on through the 1970's. This affected reading theory and research. Reading became to be viewed as a psycholinguistic, information-processing activity (Goodman, 1967, 1969; Ruddell, 1969) and the importance of language as the base of reading was established. A psycholinguistic orientation to reading theory and methodology did not characterize the content of those reading series published between 1971 and 1976.

Currently developments in sociolinguistics are affecting the reading field. It remains to be seen whether these will influence the content of Canadian reading series.

It can be concluded, therefore, that while certain developments in the field of psychology seemed to have affected the reading theory and methodology in the reading series, others did not; and that there was little impact from either psycholinguistic or linguistic theory and research which has been increasing since the 1960's.

Research Question 6.31: What Influences From Reading Theory Appear to have Affected the Theory and Methodology in the Reading Series?

The fact that reading theory did exist and change in Canadian elementary reading series published after the 1930's suggests that there may have been influences which contributed to this change. And, as described in earlier chapters, with each publication of reading series: 1932-1934, 1946-1950, 1961-1966, 1971-1976, the impact of theories about reading abounding in the literature could be discerned.

For example, in the Canadian Treasury and Highroads to Reading series published around 1934 reading was primarily viewed as a silent reading process, a concept of reading that was evident in the professional literature at that time. The objectives of reading contained in these series had been stated in the twenty-fourth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. Comprehension, also stressed in these series, was being discussed by reading authorities of the day (Gray, 1925; McKee, 1934). Thorndike's (1917) theory of reading was presented in Highroads (1934), a theory held by certain reading authorities after Thorndike (Gates, 1949; Gray, 1937; Stauffer, 1956). Aspects of the reading philosophy held by Stone (1922) and Leonard (1925) were evident in both the Treasury and Highroads series.

In the Canadian Reading Development and Highroads to Reading series published between 1946 and 1950 the concept of reading as a skills activity gathered force. This reflected the developments in reading theory of the time for it was around the late 1940's that classification schemes of comprehension and study skills began to appear.

In both of these series, too, a concern for providing materials and methods appropriate to the child's development was present. This concern for basing reading instruction on a knowledge of child development was being advocated by leading figures in the field of reading in the late thirties and forties (Gates, 1947; Gray, 1937). The concepts of reading as a skills activity and relation of reading to child development, however, were emphasized much more in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers (1961-1966). This was a reflection of theories about reading which were in vogue around this time for many more classification schemes of reading skills had evolved during this period (Barrett, 1968; DeBrev, 1960, Gray, 1960; Harris, 1956; Russell, 1960; Smith, 1960) and the importance of a knowledge of child development in reading instruction was discussed by numerous reading authorities (Deboer, 1960; Durrell, 1956; Harris, 1961; Russell, 1949, 1960; Spache, 1963). The concept of levels of reading comprehension was also present in these series, a concept which had become integrated within reading theory around 1940 and which continued to exist throughout the fifties and sixties. In addition, reading was viewed as a cognitive activity and as one of the language arts in Canadian Ginn Basic and Young Canada Readers, views of reading which grew to prominence in the sixties.

In the reading series published between 1971 and 1976 this concept of reading as one of the language arts was much more firmly established as was the importance of language to reading. Reading as a skills process also seemed to be a theory of reading held by the authors for reading skills were even further delineated within these series. All of these characteristics of the series characterized the theories about reading abounding in the professional literature of the seventies. However, by the seventies these concepts had been thoroughly integrated into the reading field, had been criticized, and new developments were now taking place.

The discussion to this point has attempted to show how aspects of theories about reading which coloured the professional literature also coloured the theories about reading found in Canadian elementary basal reading series published since 1934. The fact that traces of the influences of reading theory were not evident in the series until 1934 indicates immediately that there was a lag between developments in reading theory and their implementation into the reading series for reading theory had emerged by the very early 1900's. And, indeed, as noted in Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 and demonstrated in the immediately preceding discussion, this was true with regard to many developments in reading theory. A few examples will suffice for further illustration: A view of reading as a silent rather than an oral activity prevailed in the literature from 1908 on but did not appear in Canadian elementary reading series until approximately 1932-1934. And it was not until the publication of these series that the objectives for reading stated in the twenty-fourth yearbook of the N.S.S.E. (1925) appeared. The objectives of reading and broader definition of reading which were part of the thirty-seventh yearbook of the N.S.S.E. did not find their way into Canadian reading series until 1946-1950 when Canadian Reading Development and a second edition of Highroads to Reading were published.

It appears that other developments in reading theory did not have any impact at all on the content of Canadian reading series. For example, the concept of reading as a problem-solving process which was so prevalent in the sixties did not appear in any of the series published between 1961 and 1976; the models and theories of reading which began to spring up in the late 1960's did not affect the reading theory in the series published between 1971 and 1976, and traces of the models of discourse which emerged in the seventies have not left traces in the most recently published series.

Between the 1950's and 1970's, due to developments in reading theory and research, several factors were identified and discussed by reading authorities to be involved in reading comprehension. For the most part these factors did not receive attention by the authors of the reading series. This is highlighted in Figure 8.1 which summarizes the view of reading authorities regarding the variables affecting reading comprehension.

Of all the factors presented in Figure 8.1 only those in I-A (xiv, xv, xvi, xviii, xix); I-B (i); II-A (ii); III-B; and III-C were developed to any degree by the reading comprehension methodology in the reading series.

Theories about reading comprehension that filled the literature from 1950 on appeared to be more directly related to the reading comprehension methodology. The suggestions for teaching literature in the Highroads (1934) and Treasury (1932-1934) series were clearly adopted from the work of Stone (1922), Leonard (1925) and McKee (1934). The emphasis on systematic teaching of reading skills, use of discussion, questions, setting purposes and developing background experiences

I. VARIABLES WITHIN THE READER

A. Cognitive processes

(i) imagining	Harris, 1948 Durrell, 1949 1948 NSSE Yrbk. Smith, 1963 Eisner, 1976 Thompson, 1965
(ii) assimilation of ideas, concepts (synthesis)	Gray, 1960 Cleland, 1965 Herber, 1965 Venezky and Calfee, 1970 Barrett, 1968 Anderson and Robinson, 1965 Thompson, 1965
(iii) inferring	Dewey, 1909 Cleland, 1965 Thompson, 1965 Barrett, 1968 Spache, 1973 Harris, 1948 Smith, 1963 Huus, 1963 Massey, 1963
(iv) seeing relationships interrelating	Thompson, 1965 Niles, 1963 Gray, 1960 Durrell, 1949 Cleland, 1965 Kress, 1968 Smith, 1963 Anderson and Robinson, 1966 Massey, 1963 Giffin, 1975 Rystrom, 1977 Ruddell, 1970
(v) classifying	Barrett, 1968
(vi) chunking	Ruddell, 1969;1970 Venezky and Calfee, 1970 Smith, 1971 Neisser, 1967
(vii) reasoning	1948 NSSE Yrbk. Stauffer (1958,1965, 1969,1970)
(viii) problem-solving	1948 NSSE Yrbk. Cleland, 1965 Stauffer, 1966,1968, 1969, 1970)
(ix) generalizing	Russell, 1961 Smith, 1963 Herber, 1965 Anderson and Robinson, 1966
(x) interpreting and implications	Russell, 1961 Anderson and Robinson, 1966 Anderson 1951 Barrett, 1968 McCreary and Surkan, 1965 Massey, 1963
(xi) predicting	Russell, 1961 Thompson, 1965 Barrett, 1968 Goodman, 1970 Venezky and Calfee, 1970
(xii) evaluating	Durrell, 1949 1948 NSSE Yrbk. Huus, 1963 Anderson and Robinson, 1966 Barrett, 1968
(xiii) summarizing	Harris, 1948 Barrett, 1968
(xiv) comparing	Durrell, 1949 Russell, 1961 Smith, 1963 Barrett, 1968
(xv) determining author's intent, purpose	Anderson and Robinson, 1966 Thompson, 1965
(xvi) selecting the main idea	Smith, 1964 Russell, 1961 Burns, 1976 May, 1977
(xvii) sampling, selecting	McCreary and Surkan, 1965 Goodman, 1970 Venezky and Calfee, 1970
(xviii) setting purposes	Dewey, 1909 Gray, 1960 Smith, 1967 Niles, 1963 Stauffer, 1969 Yoakum (1921) Taylor and Berkowitz, 1979 Elkind, 1974
(xix) memory	Russell, 1961 Bartlett, 1932 McCreary and Surkan, 1965 Ruddell, 1969, 1970 Smith, 1971 Strang, 1967 Smith, 1971 Jenkinson, 1975 Kintsch, 1973,1975 Meyer, 1977 Schank, 1975 Norman and Rumelhart, 1975 Fredericksen, 1975
(xx) concepts	Russell, 1961 Huus, 1962 Cleland, 1965 Herber, 1965 Stauffer, 1969 Elkind, 1974 Shohen, 1970

B. Affective

(i) interests	Gray and Holmes, 1939
(ii) emotions	Abrams, 1966
(iii) motivation	Kress, 1968
(iv) cognitive style	Athey, 1970

II. VARIABLES OUTSIDE THE READER

A. Effects of presentation forms

(i) advanced organizers	Ausubel 1961, 1965
(ii) questions and directions	Barrett (1968) Smith and Barrett 1974
(iii) rate of presentation	Okatcha, 1969
(iv) instructional objectives	Mager, 1971 Taba, 1962 Tyler, 1950 Popham 1969)

B. Effects of text structure (macro-level)

(i) structure	Miles, 1963 Harris, 1948 Smith, 1964 McAllister, 1965 Kintsch, 1973 Meyer, 1977
(ii) logical relations	Ebbitt, 1951 Anderson and Robinson, 1966 MacGinitie, 1975 Stauffer, 1965

C. Effects of text structure (micro-level)

(i) syntax-sentence level	Durrell, 1949 Ebbitt, 1951 Ruddell, 1969, 1970 Smith, 1971 Chomsky, 1965 Cunningham, 1975 Stauffer, 1965
D. Style	Ruddell, 1965

III. SEMANTIC VARIABLES

A. Background experiences	Holmes, 1953 Smith, 1963 Gray, 1960 Thompson, 1965 Smith, 1964 Cleland, 1965 Spache, 1965
B. Context (situational and larger cultural)	Slobin, 1971 Labov, 1970 Halliday, 1975 Bernstein, 1971 Anderson, 1951
C. Knowledge of word meanings	Huus, 1962 Holmes, 1953 Smith, 1963 Cleland, 1965 Thompson, 1965 Smith, 1964 Davis, 1941, 1968 Gray 1960
D. Semantics (understanding - meaning)	Richards, 1928 Katz and Fodor, 1969 Taylor, 1977 Giffin, 1975

Figure 8.1. Factors believed by reading authorities to affect reading comprehension.

were often advocated by reading authorities from the 1920's to the 1970's.

Research Question 6.32: What Influences from Reading Comprehension Research Appear to have Affected the Theory and Methodology in the Reading Series?

Reading comprehension research appeared to have very little impact on the reading theory and methodology related to reading comprehension in the reading series analyzed in this study. This is highlighted in the summary of research in Figure 8.2.

Only the reading comprehension research pertaining to numbers I-A (iii, ix, xiii, xvi); II (ii); III-A in Figure 8.2 appears to have carried over into the reading series.

Additional Observations

Through the historical perspective provided in this study several additional insights were gained. The evolution of events portrayed could be likened to an ever-running stream which gathers various particles as it flows, some of which accumulate into a larger mass along the way, some of which only tinge the water but are ever present, and some of which completely fade away. To illustrate more concretely--the first two of these situations can be seen in the evolution of the concept of reading as a problem-solving activity. This really had an impact in 1917 as a result of Thorndike's research and from then to the 1950's it has continued as a key concept of reading. In the sixties it became prominent possibly due to the writings of such reading authorities as Stauffer (1956, 1965, 1969). Now in the 1970's it colours current thinking about reading. The third situation is illustrated by reference to the concept of relating

I. VARIABLE WITHIN THE READER

A. Cognitive processes

(i) imagining	Huey, 1908 Gans, 1940 Jenkinson, 1957 Cramer 1975 Steingart 1975
(ii) assimilation of ideas, concepts (synthesis)	Jenkinson, 1957 Davis, 1968 Strang and Rogers, 1965 Smith 1967
(iii) inferring	Davis, 1941 Sochor, 1952 Davis, 1968 McCleod, 1978 Mistler-Lachman, 1973 Cunningham, 1975
(iv) seeing relationships	Thorndike, 1917 Kallom, 1920 Langsam, 1941 Sochor, 1952
(v) chunking	Latham, 1973
(vi) reasoning	Thorndike, 1917 Jenkinson, 1957 Gans, 1940
(vii) problem-solving	Thorndike, 1917 Gans, 1940 Sochor, 1952 Jenkinson, 1957
(viii) generalizing	Sochor, 1952
(ix) interpreting and implications	Squire, 1954
(x) predicting	James 1979
(xi) evaluating	Sochor, 1952 Gans, 1940 Russell, 1961 Wolf, Huck and King, 1968 Gray and Rogers, 1960
(xii) summarizing	Gray and Rogers, 1960 Harris, 1946 Bliesmer, 1965
(xiii) comparing	Davis, 1941 Sochor, 1952 Black, 1954 Davis, 1968
(xiv) selecting the main idea	Davis, 1941 Sochor, 1952 Robinson, 1965 Bliesmer, 1965
(xv) sampling, selecting	Goodman, 1967-1978 Burke, 1970
(xvi) setting purposes	Bliesmer, 1965 Henderson, 1965 Smith, 1967 Yoakum, 1921 Germane , 1928 Yacca, 1977 Thomas and Augstein, 1976
(xvii) memory	Latham, 1973 Jackson, 1970 Kintsch, 1973, 1975 Meyer, 1974, 1975 Furniss, 1978
(xviii) concepts	Jones, 1974 Cunningham, 1975 Tierney and Vaughan, 1975 Lyda and Robinson, 1964 Kress, 1968

II. VARIABLES OUTSIDE THE READER

A. Effects of presentation forms

(i) advance organizers	Ausubel, 1961 Ausubel and Fitzgerald,1962
(ii) questions and directions	Gwynn, 1978 Ausubel, 1961 Jerrolds, 1967 Rehmann, 1968 Johnson, 1968 Felker, 1972 Rickards, 1975 Bowman, 1975 Cooper, 1972 Hiller, 1975 Andrews, 1974 Barron, 1974 Brigham, 1972
(iii) rate of presentation	Hill, 1965 Rothkopf, 1966 Rehmann, 1965 Swenson and Kulhavy, 1974 Mayer, 1976 Perez, 1978
(iv) instructional objectives	Kaplan and Rothkopf, 1975 Kurtz, 1975 Kaplan and Simmons, 1976
(v) imagery	Rickards and Hatcher, 1979 Kulhavy and Swenson, 1976 Steingart, 1975
(vi) mapping	Davidson and Triplett, 1979
(vii) directed-reading-thinking activity	

B. Effects of text structure (macro-level)

(i) structure	Kintsch, 1973 Rumelhart 1975 Fredericksen , 1972 Peltz, 1974
(ii) logical relations	Kallom, 1920 Davis, 1941 Greene, 1921
(iii) propositions	Fur se, 1978 Kintsch, 1973

C. Effects of text structure (micro-level)

(i) syntax	Ruddell, 1965 Coleman, 1969 Fagan, 1969 Goodman, 1970 Pearson, 1974 Jongsma, 1975 Reid, 1973 Robertson, 1968 Cunningham, 1975 Stoodt (1974)
(ii) linguistic units	Louthan, 1965 Fagan, 1969 Cosens , 1974 Robertson, 1968 Stoodt, 1974

D. Literary devices	Steingart--imagery, 1975 Davis, 1941 Edwards,1974--idioms
E. Style	Ruddell, 1965

III. SEMANTIC VARIABLES

A. Background experiences	Jenkinson, 1957 Robinson, 1965 Cafone, 1966
B. context (linguistic)	Black, 1954 Goodman, 1965 Lachman and Tuttle, 1965
C. Knowledge of word meanings	Kallom, 1920 Gray, 1925 Russell, 19 Langsam, 1941 Davis, 1941,1968 Sochor, 1952 Bormuth, 1965 Latham, 1973
D. Semantics	Fillmore, 1968 Perfetti and Garson, 1973 Sachs, 1974
E. Syntax and semantics (with semantics having key role)	Lachman, Tuttle, 1965 Sachs, 1974 Kolers, 1969 Goodman, 1969 Perfetti and Garson, 1973 Kintsch, 1973,1975

Figure 8.2. Variables shown by reading comprehension research to affect reading comprehension.

reading to child development. This seems to have disappeared from the professional literature of the seventies although it was a prominent concept in the late 1940's, fifties, and sixties due chiefly to the influence of such key reading authorities as Russell.

Other examples can be cited to show how aspects of the past continue to make their contribution to the present:

(1) Educational thought

The directed reading lesson format which first found its way into the Treasury and Highroads to Reading series is still evident in the currently adopted reading series. This is possibly a trace of Herbartianism which has carried over and lingered in the series.

Traces of both the scientific and progressive schools of thought could be seen in all of the reading series published thus adding support to the belief held by certain educators that progressivism had not died at the end of the 1940's.

(2) Curriculum

In the field of curriculum the current behavioral objectives movement and competency-based orientation can be linked back to the ideas of such curriculum specialists as Bobbitt and Charters in the 1920's and 1930's, Tyler and Taba in the 1940's and 1950's, and Goodland in the 1960's.

(3) Reading

A major study which has left traces on the field of reading over the years is the factor-analytic-research carried out by Davis

(1941). This study contributed to the view of reading as a skills process--a view which manifested itself in many definitions of reading and classifications of reading comprehension skills which began to permeate the professional literature in the 1940's and have continued to do so up to the present day.

What has also been revealed is that what is often considered to be new was probably part of the past. An example of this would be the current developments in schema theory and models of text discourse. Since the early decades of the twentieth century reading authorities such as Gray were discussing the impact of the type of material on a reader's comprehension. Later in the sixties the concept of reading in the content areas became dominant in the reading field discussed by such reading authorities as Herber, Nila Banton Smith, H. Alan Robinson, and Karlin. These writers stressed the importance of giving the reader purposes when reading, helping readers analyze the structure of different content materials, and to develop background experiences necessary for understanding concepts in print. Current schema theory differs, of course, in its overriding concern with how readers cognitively process text.

The study showed that there was evidence to support the impact of certain developments in the fields of curriculum and reading centered in the United States.While this illustrates an American influence on Canadian educational materials it does not follow that this was a major influence or dominant characteristic for several aspects of educational thought, reading theory and research did not find their way into the reading series. It seemed, rather, that the authors of Canadian reading series synthesized qualities of both American and British perspectives creating something unique in the process.

As noted there was evidence of a British influence throughout the series especially in the earlier reading series. Even so, as illustrated by the ever-increasing Canadian prose content the Canadian reading reading series are steadily becoming more Canadian.

Additional insights were gained into the interrelated nature of different disciplines and the ways that the reading field has attempted to integrate certain ideas from different disciplines.

Implications for the Publication of Canadian Reading Series

As revealed by the content analysis carried out in this study the literal and inferential levels of reading comprehension were most often demanded by the reading comprehension methodology in the reading series. Within these levels only a few skills, particularly those of details and cause-effect relationships were emphasized. Consequently, the reorganization, evaluation, and appreciation levels of Barrett's Taxonomy were neglected. This would imply that a more systematic distribution of reading comprehension methodology should be incorporated into Canadian reading series where each level of reading comprehension received an equal emphasis and such specific areas as summarizing, distinguishing fact from opinion, synthesizing, and judging the validity of authors' statements received attention. While Barrett's Taxonomy was used because it would enable content to be coded into categories in order to produce 'objective' data this very characteristic also caused its own subjectivity to be imposed on the data. Perhaps an analysis of the content of reading series which used an entirely different technique would have yielded far different results.

Although there was evidence of a consistency between the theory of reading stated in the reading series and the comprehension methodology given this was not always completely consistent--the degree of consistency varying with reading series. Both consistency and inconsistency, too, had been found in the reading series between the stated curriculum content of the reading series and the reading comprehension methodology. This suggests that the authors and editors of reading series should make an even greater effort to obtain consistency.

The study showed that many aspects of American educational history, curriculum development, and developments in the field of reading were to some extent translated into the reading series used in Canadian elementary schools. But many aspects were not and often there was a lag between current thinking in these fields and the translation of that thinking into instructional materials. The absence of evidence in the Canadian reading series to support the impact of developments in curriculum and reading is not necessarily a negative situation. Often the translation of theory and research into practice requires very careful scrutiny of many variables before any direct links can be made. In addition, field-based research which attempts to evaluate and translate theory into practice is often necessary first. The conclusion which naturally follows from this is that professionally trained field based personnel could probably be instrumental in closing the gap between theory, research, and practice. This also implies that it is necessary for preservice and inservice programs to become more oriented in this way.

The lag between educational thinking and research and its translation into instructional materials is certainly not unique to Canada. This same phenomenon is evident in several reading series published in the United States and Britain.

The lack of influence of certain developments on the content of the reading series can also be looked at from an entirely different standpoint. It is possible that other characteristics instead were chosen by the authors for inclusion in the reading series which were felt to be more relevant for Canadian series. Certainly over time the reading series were characterized by more and more of a Canadian orientation. By the time Starting Points, Strategies, and the Nelson Language Development Reading Program were written the series were totally produced and published in Canada and written by key figures in Canadian reading circles. It should also be pointed out that it is not entirely true to say that there was a lag between curriculum thought and its translation into instructional materials used in teaching reading for questioning was a major strategy suggested in the series long before the onslaught of research on questions and the creation of cognitive taxonomies. This might suggest that methods based on logical theory, common-sense, or tradition should be used in instruction once they have been shown to work without worrying about their having a soundly developed research base. For example, the SQ3R study method has been advocated for many years as a study technique for helping a child read (process) text. It has been criticized for its lack of a research base but it has proven useful in helping a child understand content material. Therefore, should these ideas sit on the shelf while waiting for a research base to lend support.

Nonetheless, the existence of a lag suggests that the team responsible for creating basal reading series should be very cognizant of the literature, have a historical perspective, and have insight into any developing trends which results partly from the first two criteria but also ensues from an 'intuitive' quality.

The knowledge described above is also needed in order to translate appropriate findings from reading theory and research into basal reading series. For example, it would seem that text discourse models and research may soon have developed to a point where they can be evaluated and translated where appropriate into basal reading series. Interestingly, this was not carried over into the new Nelson Language Development Reading Program.

In addition, it seems appropriate to suggest that the reading comprehension methodology in reading series should be based on knowledge that has accumulated regarding the factors affecting reading comprehension. From this knowledge, too, criteria for the content analysis of reading comprehension and reading comprehension methodology in instructional materials could be established which may prove to be far more valid and useful than a taxonomy such as Barrett's Taxonomy. Based on the research and current thinking regarding comprehension it also seems to be time for the format of reading comprehension methodology in basal reading series to change -- no longer are questions and skill exercises enough — what is needed is a more systematic treatment of the teaching of reading comprehension which utilizes sound principles from both theory and research. There may even come a time when semantics and the ideas of reading as communication will affect the reading methodology in basal reading series. Much will depend on developments in the field. Caution must be exercised, of course, for there still needs to be a great deal of research in comprehension instruction before any methodology can be devised with completeness and accuracy. The question is how long does one wait.

It may also be true that authors need to evaluate the content of readers in terms of Canadian children's reading interests. As early as 1918, Judd's research, indicated that interest was a key factor affecting reading comprehension. The comparison between Greenlaw's (1979) survey of American children's reading interests and the reader content of the current Canadian elementary reading series certainly revealed a disparity.

Recommendations for Further Research

In carrying out this study a far greater synthesis of interrelationships emerged than could be delved into within the limits of the study. An example of this would be the finding that authors of reading series are influenced to some degree by others. Further research into the backgrounds of the authors would probably shed light on what eventually became incorporated into reading series.

The cognitive levels of questions were coded by using Barrett's Taxonomy. Research has shown that the sequencing of questions is most important in the learning process. Therefore, a further study might look at the sequencing of questions in instructional materials such as basal reading series. Analysis of reading series could also be carried out using an entirely conceptual framework- one based on current theories and models related to the reading process.

In order to really have a conception of reading comprehension methodology actual classroom practice could be studied and examined in relation to the content of the material being used. A comprehensive history of reading comprehension instruction could also be undertaken which would be much broader in scope and which would utilize interviews, records, files, and other documents.

It also seems appropriate to recommend further research into the relation between children's reading interests and the content of basal readers. Perhaps before this can be initiated a survey of the reading interests of Canadian boys and Canadian girls should be conducted. And, having surveyed the available historical studies of Canadian curriculum as a consequence of this study, the writer would recommend further historical research into Canadian curriculum. Setting reading curriculum and instruction within the social, cultural, and political contexts of Canada would probably prove fascinating.

Concluding Statement

The major purpose of this study was to trace historically the nature of reading comprehension in Canadian reading series. There was also an attempt to assess the impact of developments in knowledge related to psychology, linguistics, curriculum, and reading upon the content of Canadian basal reading series. And, in addition, to a lesser extent, the impact of American influences on Canadian instructional materials was assessed. Hopefully, as a result,the study has contributed to the field of reading and Canadian educational history.

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APPENDIX 1

Total Years of Adoption for Reading Series Selected for Study

Table 1

Total Number of Provinces and Years for Reading Series 1925-1949

Series		Province	Years
Highroads to Reading		British Columbia	14
		Alberta	14
		Saskatchewan	14
		Manitoba	15
	Total	4	57
Canadian Readers		British Columbia	10
		Alberta	10
		Saskatchewan	9
		Manitoba	9
		New Brunswick	14
	Total	5	52
Treasury Readers		Ontario	12
		New Brunswick	10
		Nova Scotia	14
		Prince Edward Island	9
	Total	4	45
Ontario Readers		Ontario	11
		Prince Edward Island	15
	Total	2	26
Atlantic Readers		Nova Scotia	8
	Total	1	8

Table 2

Total Number of Provinces and Years for Reading Series 1950-1978

Series		Province	Years
Canadian Reading Development		Alberta	19
		Saskatchewan	28
		Ontario	25
		Nova Scotia	13
		Prince Edward Island	2
	Total	5	87
Canadian Ginn Basic Readers		Alberta	13
		Ontario	16
		Nova Scotia	11
		Prince Edward Island	5
	Total	4	45
Young Canada Readers		Alberta	10
		Saskatchewan	5
		Ontario	15
		Nova Scotia	8
		Prince Edward Island	5
	Total	5	43
New Basic Readers		Alberta	16
		Saskatchewan	5
		Nova Scotia	8
		Prince Edward Island	2
		Newfoundland	8
	Total	5	39
New World Readers		Ontario	24
		Nova Scotia	6
	Total	2	30

APPENDIX 2

Barrett's Taxonomy of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension

1.0 Literal Comprehension. Literal comprehension focuses on ideas and information which are explicitly stated in the selection. Purposes for reading and teacher's questions designed to elicit responses at this level may range from simple to complex. A simple task in literal comprehension may be the recognition or recall of a single fact or incident. A more complex task might be the recognition or recall of a series of facts or the sequencing of incidents in a reading selection. Purposes and questions at this level may have the following characteristics.

1.1 Recognition requires the student to locate or identify ideas or information explicitly stated in the reading selection itself or in exercises which use the explicit ideas and information presented in the reading selection. Recognition tasks are:

1.11 Recognition of Details. The student is required to locate or identify facts such as the names of characters, the time of the story, or the place of the story.

1.12 Recognition of Main Ideas. The student is asked to locate or identify an explicit statement in or from a selection which is a main idea of a paragraph or a larger portion of the selection.

1.13 Recognition of a Sequence. The student is required to locate or identify the order of incidents or actions explicitly stated in the selection.

1.14 Recognition of Comparison. The student is requested to locate or identify likenesses and differences in characters, times, and places that are explicitly stated in the selection.

1.15 Recognition of Cause and Effect Relationships. The student in this instance may be required to locate or identify the explicitly stated reasons for certain happenings or actions in the selection.

1.16 Recognition of Character Traits. The student is required to identify or locate explicit statements about a character which helps to point up the type of person he is.

1.2 Recall requires the student to product from memory ideas and information explicitly stated in the reading selection. Recall tasks are:

1.21 Recall of Details. The student is asked to produce from memory facts such as the names of characters, the time of the story, or the place of the story.

1.22 Recall of Main Ideas. The student is required to state a main idea of a paragraph or a larger portion of the selection from memory, when the main idea is explicitly stated in the selection.

1.23 Recall of a Sequence. The student is asked to provide from memory the order of incidents or actions explicitly stated in the selection.

1.24 Recall of Comparisons. The student is required to call up from memory the likenesses and differences in characters, times, and places that are explicitly stated in the selection.

1.25 Recall of Cause and Effect Relationships. The student is requested to produce from memory explicitly stated reasons for certain happenings or actions in the selection.

1.26 Recall of Character Traits. The student is asked to call up from memory explicit statements about characters which illustrate the type of persons they are.

2.0 Reorganization. Reorganization requires the student to analyze, synthesize, and/or organize ideas or information explicitly stated in the selection. To produce the desired thought product, the reader may utilize the statements of the author verbatum or he may paraphrase or translate the author's statements. Reorganization tasks are:

2.1 Classifying. In this instance the student is required to place people, things, places, and/or events into categories.

2.2 Outlining. The student is requested to organize the selection into outline form using direct statements or paraphrased statements from the selection.

2.3 Summarizing. The student is asked to condense the selection using direct or paraphrased statements from the selection.

2.4 Synthesizing. In this instance, the student is requested to consolidate explicit ideas or information from more than one source.

3.0 Inferential Comprehension. Inferential comprehension is demonstrated by the student when he uses the ideas and information explicitly stated in the selection, his intuition, and his personal experience as a basis for conjectures and hypotheses. Inferences drawn by the student may be either convergent or divergent in nature and the student may or may not be asked to verbalize the rationale underlying his inferences. In general, then, inferential comprehension is stimulated by purposes for reading and teachers' questions which demand thinking and imagination that go beyond the printed page.

3.1 Inferring Supporting Details. In this instance, the student is asked to conjecture about additional facts the author might have included in the selection which would have made it more informative, interesting or appealing.

3.2 Inferring Main Ideas. The student is required to provide the main idea, general significance, theme, or moral which is not explicitly stated in the selection.

3.3 Inferring Sequence. The student, in this case, may be requested to conjecture as to what action or incident might have taken place between two explicitly stated actions or incidents, or he may be asked to hypothesize about what would happen next if the selection had not ended as it did but had been extended.

3.4 Inferring Comparisons. The student is required to infer likenesses and differences in characters, times, or places. Such inferential comparisons revolve around ideas such as: "here and there," "then and now," "he and he," "he and she," and "she and she."

3.5 Inferring Cause and Effect Relationships. The student is required to hypothesize about the motivations of characters and their interactions with time and place. He may also be required to conjecture as to what caused the author to include certain ideas, words, characterizations, and actions in his writing.

3.6 Inferring Character Traits. In this case, the student is asked to hypothesize about the nature of characters on the basis of explicit clues presented in the selection.

3.7 Predicting Outcomes. The student is requested to read an initial portion of the selection and on the basis of this reading he is required to conjecture about the outcome of the selection.

3.8 Interpreting Figurative Language. The student, in this instance, is asked to infer literal meanings from the author's figurative use of language.

4.0 Evaluation. Purposes for reading and teacher's questions, in this instance, require responses by the student which indicate that he has made an evaluative judgment by comparing ideas presented in the selection with external criteria provided by the teacher, other authorities, or other written sources, or with internal criteria provided by the reader's experiences, knowledge, or values. In essence evaluation deals with judgment and focuses on qualities of accuracy, acceptability, desirability, worth, or probability of occurrence. Evaluative thinking may be demonstrated by asking the student to make the following judgments.

4.1 Judgments of Reality or Fantasy. Could this really happen? Such a question calls for a judgment by the teacher based on his experience.

4.2 Judgments of Fact or Opinion. Does the author provide adequate support for his conclusions? Is the author attempting to sway your thinking? Questions of this type require the student to analyze and evaluate the writing on the basis of the knowledge he has on the subject as well as to analyze and evaluate the intent of the author.

4.3 Judgments of Adequacy and Validity. Is the information presented here in keeping with what you have read on the subject in other sources? Questions of this nature call for the reader to compare written sources of information, with an eye toward agreement and disagreement or completeness and incompleteness.

4.4 Judgments of Appropriateness. What part of the story best describes the main character? Such a question requires the reader to make a judgment about the relative adequacy of different parts of the selection to answer the question.

4.5 Judgments of Worth, Desirability and Acceptability. Was the character right or wrong in what he did? Was his behavior good or bad? Questions of this nature call for judgments based on the reader's moral code or his value system.

5.0 Appreciation. Appreciation involves all the previously cited cognitive dimensions of reading, for it deals with the psychological, and aesthetic impact of the selection on the reader. Appreciation calls for the student to be emotionally and aesthetically sensitive to the work and to have a reaction to the worth of its psychological and artistic elements. Appreciation includes both the knowledge of and the emotional response to literary techniques, form, styles, and structures.

5.1 Emotional Response to the Content. The student is required to verbalize his feelings about the selection in terms of interest, excitement, boredom, fear, hate, amusement, etc. It is concerned with the emotional impact of the total work on the reader.

5.2 Identification with Characters or Incidents. Teachers' questions of this nature will elicit responses from the reader which demonstrate his sensitivity to, sympathy for, and empathy with characters and happenings portrayed by the author.

5.3 Reactions to the Author's Use of Language. In this instance the student is required to respond to the author's craftsmanship in terms of the semantic dimensions of the selection, namely, connotations and denotations of words.

5.4 Imagery. In this instance, the reader is required to verbalize his feelings with regard to the author's artistic ability to paint word pictures which cause the reader to visualize, smell, taste, hear, or feel.

From: Barrett, T. C. "Taxonomy of Cognitive and Affective Dimensions of Reading Comprehension." Quoted by Clymer, T. C. in "What Is Reading?: Some Current Concepts," in Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction, N. S. S. E. Yearbook LXVII, Part ii, 1968. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

SAMPLE CODING SHEET: QUESTIONS
TEACHER'S MANUAL

SERIES Young Canada Readers READER Northern Lights

READER LEVEL 5 PUBLICATION DATE: Manual 1972

Sel.			Comprehension		Comprehension	
No.	Q	Recording Unit	Level	Other	Skill	Other
1	1	Who had the quarrel	1.2		.1	
	2	How were the boy and girl related?	3		.1	
	3	What was their father's regular duty?	1.2		.1	
	4	Why was his work important?	3		.5	
	5	What was the girl's duty?	1.2		.1	
	6	Why was her work important?	3		.5	
	7	What was the boy's work?	1.2		.1	
	8	Why was the boy's work important?	3		.5	
Total						
2						
Total						

APPENDIX 3

Annotations Made of Reading Selections from

Highroads to Reading (1935)

Title	Selection No.		No. Pages	Description	Source	Author
Perseus	69	4 (lit.) (char. traits, hero)	7	Perseus, hero son would kill king. Father places mother and son in wooden chest. In end boy kills king and Medusa	My Heroes	Kingsley, C.
Canada after the War	53	3 (Hist.)	9	War is over. Summary of position of Canada in relation to other countries. How Canada can help peace. Dangers of nationalism		Grant, W.L.

APPENDIX 4

Typical Exercise Suggested for Teaching Reading Comprehension

In this exercise the pupils first read the passage either orally or silently and then discussed the questions on the passage.

Indian Stories of Magic, Mystery and Fancy

The North American Indians were lovers of tales. They enjoyed sitting around the campfire listening to the old men and women as they told stories. These stories were so highly regarded that many tribes had a special story-teller who was held in high honor.

Many of the Indian stories are nature stories--curious, fanciful tales about birds, beasts, flowers, trees, and rocks. Some of these stories answer questions that aroused the Indians' wonder and curiousity; such questions, for example, as how fire was brought to the Indians, how winter came, how Indian corn came into the world, why turkeys gobble, and why swallows have forked tails.

The Indians believed that many things in nature possessed marvelous power, and that the world was peopled with gods, monsters, ghosts, and spirits. Consequently, many of their stories were sacred and a part of their religion. However, some of the stories were told as fancies of the imagination merely to amuse or, like our fables, to teach a lesson.

Just as the little child thinks that Santa Claus can do many wonderful things through magic, so the Indians believed that the wonderful happenings of nature, such as the welcome sunshine or rain and the disasters of storms, earthquakes and lightning, came about through magic. The rapidly flowing rivers, the rushing winds, the floods, the storm clouds, and the thunder all became living active, swift-moving beings in the tales of Indian story-tellers. Since the Indians' lives were filled with belief in charms and magic, the hero of their stories sails in magic canoes that move swiftly of their own accord, rides upon the wind, or outruns his foe by means of wondrous magic moccasins. His knives, spears, bows, and arrows have marvelous mystic powers that enable him to win surprising victories in the face of great difficulties.

1. Who told the stories in the Indian tribes?
2. Why do you suppose they were old people?
3. What did many of the stories tell about?
4. Why did many of the stories become a part of the Indian's religion?
5. What was the purpose of an Indian fable?
6. Were all the stories sacred and serious?
7. How did the Indians' way of thinking about where rain, sunshine, earthquakes, tornadoes, and storms come from differ from our ideas?
8. Do you see any way in which old Indian tales of magic and fancy and our own fairy tales are alike?

(McKee, 1934, p. 75)